

**The Effects of Job Demands and Resources on
Emotional labour and Employees' Psychological
Well-being**

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the Degree of
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Declaration of Originality

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for a degree or diploma by the University or any other institution, except by way of background information and duly acknowledged in the thesis, and to the best of the Candidate's knowledge and belief contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due acknowledgement is made in the text of the thesis.

Huei Yin Chou
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Abstract

The research was designed to advance theoretical understanding of the construct of emotional labour by investigating its antecedents and outcomes. Emotional labour refers to the process of regulating one's inner feelings or outward expressions to display the appropriate emotions required by organizations. Employees perform emotional labour through two strategies: surface acting and deep acting.

The primary objective of the thesis was to develop and empirically test an emotional labour model which was theorized using the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model. Specifically, the study hypothesized a model that emotional job demands (frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers) and resources (affectivity, perceived organizational support, and job autonomy) were antecedents of emotional labour (surface and deep acting), and emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction were outcomes of emotional labour. In addition to the direct relationships emotional labour has with antecedents and consequences, it was proposed that emotional job demands and resources would affect employees' well-being (emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction) regardless of whether emotional labour is employed.

Data were collected via a self-administered questionnaire administered at two points in time (6 months apart). A total of 199 employees from different organizations in the service industry in Taiwan completed both questionnaires. Structural equation modelling and confirmation factor analysis techniques were employed to examine the proposed measurement model and to test the hypotheses. Results provided evidence of a well-fitting measurement model and support for a number of the hypotheses. The results

showed that frequency of interactions with difficult customers and negative affectivity were predictors of surface acting, and positive affectivity was a predictor of deep acting. It was also found that emotional labour strategies (surface acting and deep acting) play an important role in determining employees' well-being. Surface acting was found to be positively related to emotional exhaustion and negatively related to job satisfaction, whereas deep acting was positively related to job satisfaction. In addition, individuals who were high on negative affectivity were likely to experience emotional exhaustion, while individuals who felt supported by their organizations were less likely to experience emotional exhaustion and more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. Finally, the results also suggested that surface acting mediated relationships between negative affectivity, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers, and emotional exhaustion and between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.

Overall, the findings of the research have implications for human resource management, particularly within the service sector, in areas including selection, training, and organizational support. Detailed theoretical and practical implications, limitations, and directions for future research are discussed.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Emotions are an integral part of the human experience and play an important role in everyday work life. In fact, emotions are an inseparable and integral component of work activities (Barlow & Maul, 2000). People commonly experience a variety of emotions on the job, making emotional management a part of work life (Eide, 2005). As the appropriate expression of emotions is part of the work role, many organizations require employees to exhibit certain emotions while at work, such as expressing only cheerfulness when interacting with customers, or suppressing their irritation with a difficult customer. Guerrier (1999, p.212) claimed that “people working in customer service roles find their employers specifying how they act and even what they should think and feel”. For example, service providers are obligated to display a polite and pleasant manner regardless of the customer’s behaviour (Ben-Zur & Yagil, 2005).

In order to express the appropriate emotions required by organizations, employees may find it necessary to manage their feelings because genuinely experienced emotions may not match those desired by the organization. These employees are now subject to another type of labour, emotional labour. Hochschild (1983), in her study of flight attendants and bill collectors, coined the term “emotional labour” to describe the emotional demands of their work. Emotional labour can be defined as the regulation of emotions at work in order to achieve the required display (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Grandey, 2000; Hochschild, 1983; Zapf & Holz, 2006). Emotional labour occurs when an

employee regulates their emotion in order to express organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal interactions. Eide (2005, p.17) argued that “emotions can be managed and utilized in an instrumental way”.

There are two methods for performing emotional labour: surface acting and deep acting (Bono & Vey, 2007; Grandey, 2000; Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting occurs when employees change their outward expressions but do not attempt to feel the emotions that they are displaying. Deep acting, in contrast, involves displaying the desired emotion by attempting to actually feel that emotion. Surface acting is focused on outward expression, whereas deep acting is focused on changing inner feelings in order to generate the desired emotion.

Research into the concept of emotional labour has increased over the past decades. The major reason for this increased attention is a change in the global economy. The economy in most developed countries has shifted from a manufacturing economy to a service economy, creating high levels of employment in the service industry. In addition, organizations are increasingly concerned about the quality of service under competitive circumstances. Good service relies not only on the product as such, but also the performance of service providers. In the service industry, “social interactions with customers, clients, or patients are a significant part of the job” (Zapf & Holz, 2006, p.1). The expression of emotions (e.g., courtesy, smiling, consideration, and empathy) has become part of the product. The generic term “customers” can encompass specific types such as patients, clients, and students (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Tschan, Rochat, & Zapf, 2005; Zapf, 2002). “Customer” is used in this thesis to refer to the key stakeholder group with whom an employee interacts to provide service.

As service providers are the interface between customers and organizations, and represent the organization to the customer (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993), the quality of the employee-customer interaction becomes part of the service delivered. Employee-customer interaction is a critical component in determining the customers' perceptions of service quality (Anderson, Provis, & Chappel, 2003; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Therefore, emotions displayed by employees when interacting with customers are a critical factor in the quality of service (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008). Anderson et al. (2003) argued that the effective performance of emotional labour is related to customers' perceptions of service quality. In addition, recent studies have consistently found that the expression of positive emotions influences customer satisfaction, evaluation of service quality, and intention to return for future business (Pugh, 2001; Söderlund & Rosengren, 2004; Tan, Foo, & Kwek, 2004; Tsai, 2001).

Some researchers have suggested that employees' performance of emotional labour may have positive effects for organizations such as providing good customer service (Anderson et al., 2003; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Zapf, 2002). Because of these positive effects for the organization, employees are required to perform emotional labour (manage their own emotions in order to display required emotions) as a job demand (Tschan et al., 2005). Service workers "are paid as much for their "emotional labour" as for their technical skills" (Guerrier, 1999, p.234).

However, despite these positive effects for organizations, others have argued that emotional labour can be either positive or negative for employees' well-being, depending on how it is performed (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Kruml & Geddes, 2000b). For example, surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002;

Martínez-Iñigo, Totterdell, Alcover, & Holman, 2007), whereas deep acting is positively related to job satisfaction (Zhang & Zhu, 2008) and personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). Similarly, Bono and Vey (2007) found that although both surface acting and deep acting require effort, surface acting is positively and deep acting is negatively related to stress.

The enhancement of work-related well-being is an important issue to human resource managers. Given the positive and negative effects of the performance of emotional labour on employees' well-being (e.g., emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction), it is important that employers can utilize sound human resource management practices (e.g., selection, job design, rewards, and training) to help employees to cope with the demands associated with the performance of emotional labour. For example, Kruml and Geddes (2000a) argued that employees can be successfully trained to change their emotions in order to display the appropriate emotion. In addition, Bono and Vey (2005) suggested the need to learn more about emotional labour with the aim of preventing the possible negative impacts on employees. They also argued that researchers have paid somewhat less attention to the antecedents of emotional labour. Therefore, additional research investigating the antecedents and consequences of emotional labour has been called for (Bono & Vey, 2005), in order to allow organizations to implement appropriate human resource management practices aimed at the effective performance of emotional labour.

In an attempt to examine the antecedents and consequences of emotional labour, the current research develops and empirically tests an emotional labour model based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli,

2001), which will be discussed in depth in chapter 3. The JD-R model specifies how employees' well-being may be affected by job demands and job resources. Job demands (e.g., work overload and emotionally demanding interactions with customers) may lead to negative consequences for employees, whereas job resources (e.g., social support and participation in decision making) may lead to positive outcomes (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007). Drawing on the JD-R model, the current research proposed that job demands and resources are antecedents of emotional labour and that they affect the way emotional labour is performed. In addition to the direct relationships emotional labour has with antecedents and consequences, job demands and resources were considered to affect employees' well-being regardless of whether emotional labour strategies (surface acting or deep acting) are employed.

Contribution of this Study

It is argued that the present research will increase our knowledge of emotional labour by empirically testing a theory driven emotional labour model. In terms of the theoretical contribution, this study will extend knowledge on emotional labour by developing a model that integrates emotional job demands, resources, emotional labour strategies, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction. Specifically, this research explores what factors influence people to engage in certain type of emotional labour strategies and how job demands, resources, and emotional labour strategies affect employees' psychological well-being.

In terms of the practical contribution, the results of this study will provide valuable information for the service industry for adopting appropriate human resource

practices to lessen the negative impacts of emotional labour on employees and for better understanding of employee selection. As suggested by Anderson et al. (2003), human resource management practices in relation to the selection and training of employees will contribute to the effective performance of emotional labour. For example, if findings of the current research show that surface acting is more likely to be related to emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction than deep acting, managers may utilize training courses to help employees learn how to take advantage of deep acting to produce appropriate emotions or suppress inappropriate ones during service interactions. Through recruitment and selection, organizations can obtain employees who are more likely to use a deep acting strategy to convey organizationally desired emotions when interacting with customers. In addition, the investigation of job resources provides an opportunity to identify resources that organizations can utilize in order to improve the performance of emotional labour.

Structure of the Thesis

The thesis comprises six chapters including the current chapter. A brief description of the remaining five chapters is outlined below.

Chapter 2 presents an overview of emotional labour. It begins with a review of Hochschild's (1983) seminal work and then discusses other perspectives in relation to the definition and dimensionality of emotional labour and its consequences. In addition, the conceptualization and operationalization of emotional labour for this research is discussed. The chapter concludes with a brief discussion of emotional labour framework,

thereby justifying the use of Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model as a theoretical model for this study.

Chapter 3 presents a theoretical framework which investigates how job demands and resources affect the way people engage in performing emotional labour, and thus further influence their perceived consequences of emotional labour. This theoretical model of emotional labour is developed based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model. In addition, based on the existing literature, the research hypotheses of this study are developed.

Chapter 4 presents a detailed discussion of the research design and the method of analyses used to conduct this study. The sample, data collection procedures, and measurement of the constructs are also described. The data analysed in the current study was collected via a self-report questionnaire. Data were gathered at two time points separated by six months. Structural equation modelling (SEM) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the model and hypotheses.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the statistical analyses used to test the hypotheses. This chapter initially describes the sample characteristics and the findings of the data screening procedures. Following that, the results of testing the measurement model and structural model are discussed.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings of the study in relation to the hypotheses, and addresses their theoretical and practical implications. The limitations of the study and suggestions for future research are then discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review-Emotional Labour

Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature concerning the nature of emotional labour. It begins with discussion of the Hochschild's (1983) perspective and then presents other perspectives in relation to the conceptualization and operationalization of emotional labour. Following that, the definition and operationalization of emotional labour for this research is discussed. The consequences of emotional labour are then discussed. Finally, this chapter by presenting the JDR model as a theoretical framework to explain the relationship between emotional labour and its antecedents and consequences.

Hochschild's (1983) Perspective

In daily life, people often find themselves suppressing true feelings and displaying a more socially accepted emotion. For example, an amusement park employee must express friendliness and joy and a bank teller should show friendliness and politeness despite the irritation that may occur when interacting with customers. A bill collector, on the other hand, is expected to display feelings of forcefulness and urgency despite sympathy toward their clients (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008).

Hochschild (1983) coined the term "emotional labour" to explain this phenomenon, and defined it as "the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display; emotional labour is sold for a wage and therefore has exchange

value” (p.7). Accordingly, she argued that service providers may not be paid just for their technical skills but also for their “emotional labour” which is commoditized and has exchange value. She argued that individuals are expected to follow feeling rules in order to experience certain emotions and react with appropriate emotions in different circumstances. Feeling rules are expectations of what specific emotions should be felt. For example, flight attendants are expected by the organization to manage inner feelings to display a friendly demeanour to customers. At the same time, customers expect that flight attendants express friendliness because “they have to be friendly, that’s their job” (Hochschild, p.190).

Hochschild (1983) argued, using a metaphor of theatre, that service encounters are considered as “shows”, where the service provider is the actor, the customer is the audience, and the workplace is the stage for interactions to take place. Specifically, she examined the work of flight attendants and bill collectors because they represented the polar extremes of emotional labour. She argued that the role of the flight attendant is to enhance the customer’s status, while the role of the collector is to deflate the customer’s status. Both flight attendants and bill collectors are required to curb their feelings in order to perform emotional labour. That is, they are required to display the emotions that are appropriate to the role (Guerrier, 1999). Additionally, she claimed emotions that were once in the private domain, expressed at an individual’s discretion, are now in the public sphere, required by employers and monitored by supervisors. Managing emotions, therefore, is part of the employees’ job. Emotions can be commoditised and need to be standardized and monitored by the organization (Hochschild, 1983).

Central to Hochschild's (1983) argument is the notion that people do not always believe what they are required to feel. Therefore, they have to regulate their emotions in order to express organizationally required emotions. She argued, from a dramaturgical perspective, that emotional labour is performed through two principal methods: surface acting and deep acting. For example, a salesman may call for either deep or surface acting in order to establish trust among clients (Hochschild, 1983). Surface acting refers to simulating one's unfelt emotions by changing one's outward appearance, such as putting on a smile and cheerfully greeting a customer despite negative feelings. This acting directly focuses on outward expressions rather than on changing inner feelings. Therefore, the use of surface acting means that there is a discrepancy between felt and displayed emotion (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Holman, Chissick, & Totterdell, 2002; Zapf, 2002; Zerbe, 2000). For example, Zapf (2002) argued that "surface acting means emotional dissonance exists between the inner feelings and the outer expression which persists during the interaction" (p.244). One flight attendant described how surface acting helps her to stop feeling angry and resentful towards passengers.

If I pretend I'm feeling really up, sometimes I actually get into it. The passenger responds to me as though I were friendly, and then more of me responds back (Hochschild, 1983, p.55).

In contrast, deep acting refers to the way that people attempt to actually alter their inner feelings in order to express appropriate emotions. When engaging in deep acting an employee is said to focus directly on his or her inner feeling where feelings are changed from "inside out". An employee who performs deep acting attempts to feel the required

emotions, thereby he or she might not experience emotional dissonance (Holman et al., 2002). In addition, deep acting involves a consciously regulated process- the effort to imagine a required emotion (Hochschild, 1983; Zapf, 2002).

Deep acting may be accomplished by “directly exhorting feeling” or by “making indirect use of a trained imagination” (Hochschild, 1983, p.38). Kruml and Geddes (2000a) further argued that employees may use their training or past experiences to help induce appropriate emotions in terms of “active deep acting” (p.11). On the other hand, when employees are spontaneously and directly exhorting feelings that they are required to feel, they are engaging in “passive deep acting” (p.12). This supports the idea that an organization can provide training programs to help employees learn how to use deep acting techniques in performing their roles. For example, flight attendants, in the course of training, are taught to think of a cabin as a living room and passengers as their guests, and annoying passengers as children who need special attention (Hochschild, 1983). One flight attendant described how deep acting helps her to control the feeling of anger towards passengers.

I try to remember that if he's drinking too much, he's probably scared of flying. I think to myself, "he's like a little child." Really, that's what he is. And when I see him that way, I don't get mad that he's yelling at me. He's like a child yelling at me then (Hochschild, 1983, p.55).

Based on qualitative findings, Hochschild's (1983) argued that emotional labour will have deleterious or negative outcomes. She claimed that the task of managing an estrangement between self and feeling and between self and display is a source of stress

and the strain of performing emotional labour, in the short-term, can cause a loss of emotional control; furthermore, the constant pressure of emotional labour, in the long-term, may lead to problems such as diminished self-esteem, burnout, and absenteeism. It should be noted that while Hochschild (1983) emphasized the negative effects of emotional labour, other researchers have argued that she has exaggerated the human costs associated with this type of work (Guerrier, 1999; Seymour, 2000). The positive and negative consequences of emotional labour will be discussed in more detail later.

According to Hochschild (1983), jobs involving emotional labour possess the following characteristics: (1) the worker is required to have facial or voice contact with the public, (2) the worker is required to produce an emotional state in another person (i.e., client or customer), and (3) the employer is able to exert some control over the emotional activities of workers through training, policy, and supervision. However, she also noted that “although the social worker, the doctor, and the lawyer do not work with an emotion supervisor immediately, they supervise their own emotional labour by considering informal professional norms and client expectations” (p.153). In addition, Pugliesi (1999) argued that emotional labour should not only be restricted to service encounters; rather, emotional labour occurs in the context of the social relations of the workplace.

Hochschild (1983) also suggested that jobs involving emotional labour can be classified into six main occupational groups: (1) professional and technical workers, (2) managers and administrators, (3) sales workers, (4) clerical workers, (5) service workers in public households, and (6) service workers in private households. However, she acknowledges that this categorization of jobs is merely suggestive and insufficient for a full understanding of what emotional labour in the workplace is and therefore needs to be

examined more closely. Researchers have indeed argued that almost every job calls for emotional labour (Robbins, Judge, Millett, & Waters-Marsh, 2008; Wharton, 1999).

Since Hochschild's (1983) work, much research has been conducted to explore the concept of emotional labour in the context of a wide range of work settings, such as restaurant workers (Adelmann, 1995), supermarket clerks (Bailey & McCollough, 2000; Rafaeli & Sutton 1989; Tolich, 1993), fast food employees (Leidner, 1993; Seymour, 2000), cashiers (Tan et al., 2004), tourism or hospitality employees (Anderson et al., 2003; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006), university administrative assistants (Grandey, 2003), bank employees (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008), debt collectors (Sutton, 1991), police officers (Martin, 1999; Stenross & Kleinman, 1989), secretaries (Wichroski, 1994), paralegals (Lively, 2002), call centre workers and nursing home employees (Lopez, 2006), nurses (Yang & Chang, 2008), physicians (Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007), teachers (Zapf & Holz, 2006), governmental organization employees (Montgomery, Panagopolou, de Wildt, & Meenks, 2006), and bank, hospital, and post office employees (Zammuner & Galli, 2005b), to name a few. This supports the idea that emotional labour is a job demand that has been investigated in different contexts. Liu, Perrewé, Hochwarter, and Kacmar (2004) argued that research has started to examine emotional labour as a universal phenomenon in the workplace. However, emotional labour, and its outcomes has been examined mainly in the context of the North American work experience (Bozionelos & Kiamou, 2008). Hence, the current research empirically tests the proposed emotional labour model in the context of employees in Taiwan's service industries. A detail discussion of the service industry in Taiwan will be provided in chapter 4.

After the introduction of the concept of emotional labour by Hochschild in 1983, many researchers have proposed their views with regard to the conceptualization and operationalization of emotional labour. Two studies conducted by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) and Morris and Feldman (1996), published in the *Academy of Management Review*, have had a particular and significant influence on later research regarding this topic. In contrast with Hochschild's (1983) perspective on emotional labour, these studies showed different viewpoints in terms of how to conceptualize and operationalize emotional labour that cause confusion in the literature. These two studies are discussed below in order to shed light on these differences.

Ashforth and Humphrey's (1993) Perspective

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) argued that emotional labour can be regarded as a form of impression management, where the workers deliberately attempt to control their behaviour toward others in order to facilitate certain social perceptions of themselves and a certain interpersonal climate. They defined emotional labour as "the act of displaying the appropriate emotion (i.e., conforming with a display rule)" (p.90). They emphasized the observable parts of emotional expression and prefer the term display rules instead of feeling rules because the former refers to which emotion should be expressed in public rather than which emotion is actually felt. Display rules are standards of behaviour that indicate which emotions are appropriate in certain situations, and how those emotions should be publicly expressed (Ekman, 1973). Zapf (2002) stated that many companies may not have explicit display rules as part of their job descriptions. However, "display

rules are sometimes explicitly stated as role-expectations in organizations” (Tschan et al., 2005, p.196).

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) suggested that, in addition to surface and deep acting, there is the possibility that the employee “spontaneously and genuinely experiences and expresses the expected emotion” (p.94). They pointed out that in many cases service providers may quite naturally feel what is expected of them without need to act to display the appropriate emotion. For instance, a nurse may truly feel sympathetic towards a very sick child without the need to surface act or deep act (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). That is, a nurse spontaneously feels and expresses what she/he is required to express (Mikolajczak, Menil, & Luminet, 2007). Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) viewed this genuine emotional expression (genuine acting) as another dimension of emotional labour because employees still display the organizationally desired emotions. Zapf (2002) and Martínez-Iñigo et al. (2007) called this way of performing emotional labour “automatic emotion regulation”. Similarly, Diefendorff, Croyle, and Gosserand (2005), in their investigation of various people-related jobs (e.g., service, healthcare, and clerical), found that expression of naturally felt emotions is distinct from surface acting and deep acting, and that emotional labour should be viewed as a three-dimensional construct (surface acting, deep acting, and genuine acting). However, the current research did not consider this genuine acting as a way of performing emotional labour and this is argued below.

Ashforth and Humphrey’s (1993) perspective on emotional labour, in comparison to Hochschild’s (1983) work, focuses only on the observable expressions of emotion rather than the inner management of feelings. Their theory is more explicit in that they

argued that performing emotional labour is the expression of certain required emotions (e.g., confirming with a display rule). Accordingly, they argued that emotional labour involves spontaneously and genuinely displaying the expected emotion by employees. However, Van Dijk and Brown (2006) argued that most researchers have reached a consensus that emotional labour requires the regulation of emotions and emotional expression in order to comply with organizational requirements and expectations. For example, Zapf (2002, p.239) defined emotional labour as “the psychological processes necessary to regulate organizationally desired emotions”. Cropanzano, Weiss, and Elias (2004) commented that Ashforth and Humphrey’s (1993) definition “does not distinguish between manifested expressions and the psychological processes used to generate those expressions” (p.57). In line with Hochschild’s (1983) argument, emotion regulation plays an important role when performing emotional labour. Thus, if employees genuinely feel and express the emotions required by an organization, there will be no necessity for them to regulate their inner feelings or outward expressions, and thus, no emotional labour. In other words, emotional labour takes place when people must express emotions that they do not actually feel.

With regard to the outcomes of emotional labour, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) acknowledged that if employees are not showing genuine expressions, emotional labour may lead to emotional dissonance and self-alienation. However, in contrast with Hochschild (1983), who focused on the negative effects of emotional labour on employees’ health and stress, Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) further emphasized the impact of emotional labour on task effectiveness and self-expression. For example, they argued that emotional labour may increase self-efficacy because one can effectively fulfil

task requirements. This will be discussed in more detail in the consequences of emotional labour section.

Morris and Feldman's (1996) Perspective

Morris and Feldman (1996) defined emotional labour as “the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” (p.987). They outlined four assumptions underlying this definition. Firstly, this definition is based on an interactionist model of emotion, which suggests that people understand emotions through their perception of the social environment in which the emotions are experienced. Secondly, contrary to Asforth and Humphrey (1993), even though there is congruence between one's felt emotion and the organizational display rules, they argued that people will still exert some degree of effort to express appropriate emotions. Thirdly, the emotional expression of a service worker, which was once in the private sphere, has become a “marketplace commodity”. Fourthly, an organization must have standards or rules that dictate how and when service providers should express a certain type of emotion. Morris and Feldman's (1996) definition of emotional labour is similar to Hochschild's (1983) in that it acknowledges that emotions can be managed and controlled by employees in order to display organizationally required emotion.

However, in contrast with the works of Hochschild (1983) and Ashforth and Humphrey (1993), Morris and Feldman (1996) had a different perspective on how to operationalize emotional labour. They regarded emotional labour as a four-dimensional construct focusing on characteristics of the work situation. The first dimension, the frequency of the emotional display, refers to how often service providers and customers

interact. This dimension has been the most often investigated in measuring emotional labour (Zapf, 2002). The more often a service provider is required to conform to organizational display rules, the more emotional labour is involved. The second dimension is the attentiveness to required display rules, which consists of duration of emotional display and intensity of emotional display. They proposed that the longer an individual interacts with a customer, the longer and stronger the emotion to be displayed, resulting in more effort required to carry out the emotional labour. According to Morris and Feldman (1996), intensity of emotional display refers to how strongly an emotion has to be displayed, and they also argued that displaying intense emotions requires more effort. The third dimension is the variety of emotions to be expressed. They argued that the greater the number of emotions to be expressed, the greater the need for emotional labour. The last dimension is the emotional dissonance which occurs when there is a discrepancy between one's felt emotions and the emotions desired by the organization. The greater the discrepancy between feelings and display rules, the more emotional labour is required. Moreover, they proposed that all four dimensions of emotional labour are positively related to emotional exhaustion, but only emotional dissonance is negatively related to job satisfaction.

Although Morris and Feldman (1996) claimed that their views are rooted in an interactionist model of emotion, there are a number of shortcomings associated with this four-dimensional model. Firstly, their conceptualization of emotional labour as a multidimensional construct is not incorporated into their definition of emotional labour, which simply includes "the effort, planning, and control" (p.987). Grandey (2000), for example, pointed out that the four dimensions of frequency, attentiveness, variety and

dissonance are not consistent with Morris and Feldman's definition of emotional labour.

In addition, previous researchers have considered some of these dimensions (e.g., frequency and duration) as antecedents of emotional labour (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Grandey, 2000; Kruml & Geddes, 2000a). For instance, Kruml and Geddes (2000a) argued that frequency and duration of interactions seem to be job characteristics that influence how people perform emotional labour rather than as emotional labour itself.

Secondly, it is arguable whether emotional dissonance should be treated as a dependent variable, as one dimension of emotional labour, or as an antecedent of emotional labour. There are several variations in the role of emotional dissonance in performing emotional labour (Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). Some researchers considered it as a consequence of emotional labour (Adelmann, 1995; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Bakker & Heuven, 2006), while others treated it as antecedent of emotional labour (Rubin, Tardino, Daus, & Munz, 2005; Zapf, Vogt, Seifert, Mertini, & Isic, 1999). In addition, Van Dijk and Brown (2006) argued that emotional labour and dissonance should be viewed as two separate constructs.

In sum, this four-dimension construct of emotional labour fails to consider the process of how one actually manages emotions. It is, therefore, questionable as to whether this four dimensional perspective provides an effective way of understanding the relationship of emotional labour, and its antecedents and consequences.

Definitions and Operationalizations of Emotional Labour

Bono and Vey (2005) and Van Dijk and Brown (2006) argued that although researchers differ somewhat in their opinions on the nature of emotional labour, most

researchers have reached agreement that emotional labour involves managing emotions at work in order to conform to organizational requirements. From an emotion management point of view, emotional labour, in the current research, is defined as the process of regulating one's inner feelings or outward expressions to display the appropriate emotions required by organizations. This definition assumes that people when regulating their inner feelings or expressions to meet the organizationally emotional requirements are performing emotional labour. Emotion regulation plays an important role when performing emotional labour. Therefore, when employees genuinely feel and express the emotions required by an organization, there will be no need for them to perform emotional labour (alter their inner feelings or outward expressions). In other words, performing emotional labour is the strategy chosen to display organizationally desired emotions.

Although most researchers agree that emotional labour involves managing emotions at work, there are a variety of perspectives pertaining to the operationalization of emotional labour. Indeed, Bono and Vey (2005), in their quantitative review of emotional labour research, found that there was less agreement on how to measure or operationalize emotional labour. They argued that although researchers have operationalized emotional labour as either emotional management, existence of display rules, or role requirement, the majority of studies have operationalized emotional labour as emotional management or regulation (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Grandey, 2000; Krumboltz & Geddes, 2000a).

There are situations when employees' felt emotions are different from organizationally required emotions. A discrepancy between what is expected (e.g.,

expressing positive emotion to a hostile customer) and what is experienced (e.g., anger) by employees is called emotional dissonance (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996). In response to this dissonance, employees can either display their true emotions or try to perform emotional labour (Holman et al., 2002). However, as previously argued, displaying true emotions inconsistent with organizational requirement is not usually an option because employees are generally required to display certain emotions toward customers (e.g., Hochschild, 1983).

Based on the review of the emotional labour literature, surface acting and deep acting are two strategies used by employees to perform emotional labour and display required emotions at work. Indeed, Van Dijk and Brown (2006) argued that surface and deep acting have been two widely accepted emotional regulation strategies in the literature since Hochschild's work. For instance, Grandey (2000), based on Gross's (1998a, 1998b) emotion regulation theory, argued that emotional labour can be conceptualized as the process of regulating emotions, which is accomplished through surface acting (managing outward expression) and deep acting (managing inner feelings). This will be discussed in more detail in chapter 3.

Focusing on this view of emotional labour may provide better insights about the effects of the choice of emotional regulation strategies on employees' well-being. It should be noted again that although genuine acting (expression of naturally felt emotions) was empirically found to be distinct from surface acting and deep acting (Diefendorff et al., 2005), the current research did not view genuinely acting as a strategy because people do not need to regulate their emotional state in order to express organizationally desired emotions.

Consequences of Emotional Labour

As suggested by Ashforth and Humphrey (1993, p.96), emotional labour is a “double-edged sword” because not only can it facilitate task performance by regulating interactions and excluding interpersonal problems, but it can also have negative outcomes for the employees. The negative and positive consequences of performing emotional labour, in particular its effects on employees’ psychological well-being and on job performance, are discussed in the following sections.

Positive Consequences

Ashforth and Humphrey (1993) argued that emotional labour may facilitate self-expression and self-efficacy, which can make interactions more predictable and effective and thereby help workers to avoid embarrassing interpersonal problems. Moreover, they pointed out that performing emotional labour consistent with the display rules may help employees to cognitively distance themselves from unpleasant situations and maintain their “objectivity and emotional equilibrium” (p.95). For example, medical students, through performing emotional labour, can learn how to express concern but remain sufficiently aloof to retain their impartiality (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Although performing emotional labour may be a stressor for service providers, the possibility of the joy of managing emotions should be taken into account (Wouters, 1989). For example, Shuler and Sypher (2000), in their case study of a 911 centre (emergency telephone help line), found that dispatchers “seem to enjoy and even benefit from some of their emotional interaction with callers” (p.52). Likewise, Tolich (1993), in a study of grocery clerks, argued the possibility that service providers may experience pleasurable

moments because interacting with various customers may enliven the routine tasks which are a common phenomenon in the service industry. In a survey of hospital and bank employees, based on the jobs Hochschild (1983) identified, Wharton (1993) operationalized emotional labour as a construct indicating the presence or absence of emotional labour in an occupation and found that workers who perform emotional labour experience higher job satisfaction than other workers not involved in emotional labour. Specifically, research found that deep acting is positively related to personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002) and displaying positive emotions are positively related to personal accomplishment and job satisfaction (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Zapf & Holz, 2006).

Managing emotions by displaying positive emotions such as enthusiasm, friendliness, and empathy may result in good customer service quality, which is a salient factor for customer satisfaction, increased sales and successful business (Grandey, 2000; Holman et al., 2002). Indeed, it is a widely accepted idea that the display of positive emotions by employees may benefit job performance (e.g., Pugh, 2001; Söderlund & Rosengren, 2004; Tan et al., 2004; Tsai, 2001; Tsai & Huang, 2002). Pugh (2001) found a positive relationship between positive emotional displays by bank employees and customers' positive affect, which also positively related to their evaluations of overall service quality. Similarly, Tsai (2001) found that employees' positive affective displays would increase the likelihood of customers returning to the store and recommending the store to friends. Overall, it seems that managing emotions in order to display positive emotions desired by organizations may also enhance customer service performance which leads to higher customer satisfaction.

Negative Consequences

Much of the research suggests that the performance of emotional labour has detrimental effects on workers. Hochschild (1983) argued that employees have to curb their feelings in order to perform emotional labour, and the curbing is often a personal strain. The strain of emotional labour, in the short-term, can cause a loss of emotional control; furthermore, and in the long-term, may result in problems such as diminished self-esteem, burnout, and absenteeism (Hochschild, 1983). James (1989) commented that “emotional labour can be as exhausting as physical labour” (p.27).

The lack of expressive latitude is considered to impair individual well-being (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). The negative psychological consequences of performing emotional labour, such as job stress, inauthenticity, and burnout, are caused by the fusion of the self and work role, or the estrangement between oneself and the work role (Wharton, 1999). The fusion of the self and work role can be seen when employees identify too closely with their jobs and are unable to depersonalize and detach themselves from their work roles, and thus increase their risk of burnout. Estrangement reflects the forms of emotive dissonance or inauthenticity, which occur when employees’ displayed emotions are in conflict with their inner feelings. When employees’ emotional expressions on the job are inauthentic representations of their personal beliefs, performing emotional labour is unhealthy (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000).

Some researchers argued that emotional dissonance is an inevitable state arising from performing emotional labour, especially engaging in surface acting (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Holman et al., 2002; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006; Zapf, 2002). For example, Van Dijk and Brown (2006), in a study of two tourism-based organizations,

found that surface acting was positive related to emotional dissonance. The experience of emotional dissonance, similar to cognitive dissonance, may cause the individual to feel hypocritical, and ultimately lead to personal and job-related maladjustment, such as poor self-esteem, depression, cynicism, and alienation from work (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

In addition, considerable research has found that jobs involving emotional labour have the following negative impacts on individuals' well-being: psychological distress (Pugliesi, 1999), physical symptoms (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000), emotional exhaustion (Abraham, 1998; Erickson & Ritter, 2001; Grandey, 2003; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Zapf et al., 1999), and job dissatisfaction (Abraham, 1998; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Specifically, surface acting has been found to be related to negative outcomes, such as depersonalization, emotional exhaustion, and dissatisfaction (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2003; Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005b; Totterdell & Holman, 2003).

In accordance with the review of positive and negative consequences of emotional labour, it is difficult to reach universal conclusions about the effects of emotional labour on employees' psychological well-being. One reason is that studies have used different perspectives of emotional labour. The inconsistent empirical evidence with regard to the positive and negative outcomes of emotional labour may be explained by the differential definitions and operationalisations of emotional labour. Morris and Feldman (1996) indicated the possibility that confusion about the outcomes of performing emotional labour is due to "the incomplete way in which the construct has been previously operationalized" (p.1001). Similarly, Fisher and Ashkanasy (2000) highlighted the

importance of a clear definition of what constitutes emotional labour in order to address the effects of emotional labour on workers. The inconsistent findings on psychological well-being also indicated that emotional labour is a multidimensional construct with one dimension having positive and the other negative effects. The other reason is that researchers have failed to account for individual characteristics. Researchers have suggested that individual characteristics may play an important role in determining the consequences of emotional labour (e.g., Bono & Vey, 2005; Grandey, 2000; Pugliesi, 1999). For example, Bono and Vey (2005) argued that positive affectivity and negative affectivity may play a key role in emotional labour.

Conclusion

Although researchers have proposed and examined the antecedents and consequences of emotional labour (e.g., Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996), the literature appears to lack a theoretical framework that relates these variables, such as organizational and individual factors, emotional labour, and employees' psychological well-being. For example, Brotheridge and Lee (2002) argued that there has been no overarching theory or framework used to explain the relationship between emotional labour and distress. Therefore, they used conservation of resources theory developed by Hobfoll (1989) as a means of examining why emotional labour may or may not result in burnout. They proposed that employees expend resources (e.g., effort in performing surface acting and deep acting) in meeting the emotional demands of their roles and that the effect of expenditure of resources on employees' burnout depends on anticipation of generating rewards of the service encounter and the resources available to meet emotional

demands. However, their model did not explain why emotional labour may result in positive outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction) and how resources (e.g., social support) may have influences on employees' emotional labour.

In an attempt to understand the influences of emotional job demands and resources on performing emotional labour, and on employees' perception of their psychological well-being, as well as to examine the outcomes of performing emotional labour, the current research examined these relationships using the Job Demands-Resources model developed by Demerouti et al. (2001). Specifically, the current study developed a model linking job demands and resources, emotional labour, emotional exhaustion, and job satisfaction. The JD-R model will be discussed in the next chapter. It should be noted that, as discussed earlier, there have been different viewpoints regarding the role of emotional dissonance in performing emotional labour. Therefore, the current research did not include this construct in the proposed emotional labour model.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a review of the literature concerning the construct of emotional labour. Hochschild's (1983) seminal work *The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling* has inspired substantial research. Although there are some differences in opinion on the conceptualization and dimensions of emotional labour, most researchers agree that emotional labour involves managing emotions at work in order to express appropriate emotions to meet organizational requirements. Indeed, the majority of studies have operationalized emotional labour as the process of emotional management or regulation (Bono & Vey, 2005). This research defined emotional labour

as the process of regulating one's inner feelings or outward expressions to display the appropriate emotions required by organizations, and operationalizes emotional labour as surface acting and deep acting, the two main types of strategies used to regulate emotions at work. That is, emotional labour refers to the psychological strategies (surface acting or deep acting) used to produce a required expression in response to emotional dissonance. If people use surface acting to display required emotions (no attempt to actually feel or experience those required emotions), they continually experience emotional dissonance. In contrast, if people who perform deep acting endeavour to feel the required emotions, they do not feel the same level of emotional dissonance (Holman et al., 2002).

This chapter also discussed issues concerning the consequences of emotional labour. There is a wide discrepancy in the literature investigating the relationship between emotional labour and an employee's well-being and no universal conclusion about the consequences of emotional labour because of the differences in the conceptualizing and operationalizing emotional labour. On the one hand, performance of emotional labour may have positive outcomes for individuals and organizations such as job satisfaction and selling more products. On the other hand, performing emotional labour may have negative outcomes such as burnout and job dissatisfaction. The positive or negative effects of emotional labour on employees' well-being depend on how it is performed. For example, empirical studies have found that surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion (Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007), whereas deep acting is positively related to job satisfaction (Zhang & Zhu, 2008).

In order to fully understand the nature of emotional labour, the current research utilized the Job Demands-Resources model (Demerouti et al., 2001) to explain the

relationships between emotional labour and its antecedents and outcomes. The next chapter will discuss the JD-R model and then propose the theoretical model of emotional labour and hypotheses.

CHAPTER THREE

Literature Review-Theoretical Model and Development of Hypotheses

Introduction

Based on issues raised in chapter 2, this chapter proposes an emotional labour model, and reviews the literature concerning the relevant constructs and the relationships among these constructs. It begins with an overview of the job demands-resources model and then moves to a discussion of a theoretical model of emotional labour. Following that, the specific hypotheses that depict the relationships among the constructs which comprise this model are discussed.

The Job Demands-Resources Model

In an attempt to investigate emotional labour and its antecedents and consequences, the current research develops and tests an emotional labour model based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model of work stress developed recently by Demerouti et al. (2001). The basic assumption of the JD-R model is that even though work environments vary, the characteristics of these environments may be classified into two categories: job demands and job resources. Demerouti et al. argued that the model provides a theoretical framework that may be applied to all occupational settings, irrespective of the particular demands and resources involved. “Job demands” refers to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational features of the job, requiring physical and/or psychological (cognitive and emotional) effort and energy from an

employee and are therefore related to physiological and/or psychological costs (Demerouti et al., 2001). Although job demands are not necessarily negative aspects of the job, they may become job stressors when the effort to meet those demands taxes an employee's adaptive capabilities (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Typical examples of job demands include role ambiguity, role conflict, stressful events, and heavy workload (Lee & Ashforth, 1996).

“Job resources” refers to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that may be functional in achieving work goals, may reduce job demands, and may stimulate personal growth and development (Demerouti et al., 2001). Job resources may either play an intrinsic motivational role because they foster employees' growth, learning and development, or play an extrinsic motivation role because they are instrumental in accomplishing job goals (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Examples of resources are social support, job enhancement opportunities, reinforcement contingencies, performance feedback, and autonomy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Lee & Ashforth, 1996).

Another important assumption of the JD-R model underpins the relationship of job demands and resources with well-being. It is suggested that job demands and job resources initiate two independent processes, and thus have different effects on an employee's well-being. Initially, the model was applied to predict negative well-being, namely burnout. It is predicted that high job demands lead to constant overtaxing and, in the long term, to feelings of exhaustion, whereas lack of job resources is related to disengagement from work (Demerouti et al., 2001). Similarly, Hobfoll and Freedy (1993) stated that job demands trigger strain (e.g., physical and emotional exhaustion), whereas

resources help to overcome the need for defensive coping and enhance one's self-efficacy. Demerouti et al. (2001) argued that there is little empirical evidence for an interaction effect between job demands and job resources; therefore, their JD-R model only focused on the unique contribution of the job demands and job resources to explain variance in burnout.

According to Karasek's (1979) Demand-Control Model (DCM), researchers argue that job resources may buffer the impact of job demands on burnout. The basic assumption of the DCM is that the relationship between job demands and burnout will be weaker when job resources are high. However, many studies did not support the predicted interaction between job demands and job resources (e.g., Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2004; de Jonge & Kompier, 1997; Lewig & Dollard, 2003; Van der Doef & Maes, 1999). For example, Lewig and Dollard (2003), in a study of Australian call centre workers, found that job resources (autonomy and social support) did not moderate the effects of job demands on employees' well-being (e.g., emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction) and that the JD-R model accounted for more variance in emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction than the DCM. Similarly, Bakker et al. (2004), found that job resources (autonomy, possibilities development and social support) did not have a buffering effect on the relationship between job demands and exhaustion. As one aim of the current research is to examine the predictors of emotional labour, it will therefore focus only on a main effect rather than an interactive effect between job demands and job resources.

The JD-R model has been extended to become a more comprehensive approach that does not restrict itself to employees' malfunctioning, but also includes positive outcomes, such as engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004), job satisfaction (Janssen,

Peeters, de Jonge, Houkes, & Tummers, 2004; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2006), and organizational commitment (Mauno et al., 2006). For example, in a study of US and Dutch nurses, Janssen et al. (2004) found that job resources (e.g., workplace social support) were negatively related to emotional exhaustion and positively related to job satisfaction. This extension allows a focus on both negative and positive psychological outcomes which provides better understanding, regarding the prevention of negative consequences and the enhancement of positive consequences.

Although there is substantial empirical support for the model's main assumptions, there are still certain points that need to be addressed. One limitation of the JD-R model is that it concentrates on the direct relationship between working conditions (job demands and resources) and work related well-being (e.g., burnout). This model specifies how employees' well-being may be influenced by those two specific sets of working conditions; however it neglects the possibility of the mediating role of coping strategies in the process. Indeed, a well-established body of research has investigated the roles of organizational, social and personal resources, and coping strategies in attempting to explain work related strain. These investigations have examined the relationships between resources and coping strategies (e.g., Gfroerer, 2002; Havlovic & Keenan, 1991), between coping strategies and strain (e.g., Brotheridge, 2001), or between resources and strain (e.g., De Jonge & Dormann, 2006; Kahn & Byosiore, 1992). For example, in a study of employees in the Canadian federal civil service, Ito and Brotheridge (2003) found that resources, such as autonomy and supervisory support, were negatively related to emotional exhaustion and that resources, such as autonomy, co-worker support, and locus of control, were positively related to problem-solving coping strategies. In addition,

models that link these relationships have been developed (e.g., Ito & Brotheridge, 2003; Latack, Kinicki, & Prussia, 1995; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). For example, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) examined the relationships between variables such as situational appraisals, coping strategies, and personal and social coping resources, in attempting to explain the stress-adjustment process. They argued that coping strategies mediate the relationship between situational appraisal and strain. A variety of coping strategies that people may use to cope with stressful situations have been proposed by researchers. For example, Lazarus and Folkman (1984) argued that these strategies are either emotion-focused (mentally disengaging from the problem) or problem-focused (how to technically solve the problem). In addition, Latack and her colleagues (Latack & Havlovic, 1992; Latack et al., 1995) argued that these strategies can be either control strategies, which are concerned with addressing the situation; or escape strategies, which are used to avoid problems.

As discussed above, the literature appears to suggest that coping strategies play an important role in explaining the relationships between job demands, coping resources and strain. As the current research focuses on emotional labour, the role of emotional labour strategies will be embedded in the JD-R model. That is, the current research argued that job demands and resources may have a direct influence on employees' psychological well-being, as well as an indirect influence on well-being through emotional labour strategies. As discussed in chapter 2, surface acting and deep acting are two strategies used by employees to perform emotional labour. Emotional labour strategies will be discussed in relation to the proposed theoretical model of emotional labour.

Another limitation of the JD-R model is that it is exclusively focused on the role of job resources as antecedents of work-related well-being. It neglects the potential role of individual characteristics as useful resources in coping with stress. Resources are defined as “those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies” (Hobfoll, 1989, p.516). Therefore, resources including personal resources (e.g., personality variables such as locus of control or hardiness) play several roles in supporting coping strategies and reducing strain (Ito & Brotheridge, 2003). For example, personal characteristics, like other resources, can be important determinants of work-related well-being (Hobfoll, 1989). In order to clearly understand the concept of emotional labour, researchers need to integrate personality variables into the emotional labour framework (Bono & Vey, 2005; Grandey, 2000; Liu et al., 2004). Personality may affect employees’ choice about whether to engage in surface or deep acting and influence the extent to which emotional regulation leads to feelings of stress (Bono & Vey, 2007). For example, affectivity may play an important role in emotional labour (Bono & Vey, 2005). In addition, researchers (e.g., Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996) argued that there are situational *and* individual factors that may influence the way that employees perform emotional labour. The current research will, therefore, include personality variables as personal resources in the proposed emotional labour model. It is argued that employees with different types of organizational and personal resources may choose different strategies when performing emotional labour.

A Theoretical Model of Emotional Labour

Based on the preceding discussion, the current research integrates theoretical and empirical knowledge to develop an emotional labour model which examines the relationships among job demands, individual and organizational resources, emotional labour, and employees' well-being. This emotional labour model attempts to clarify the relationships between emotional labour strategies and other variables (job demands and resources) in the prediction of employees' well-being. The model developed in the current research proposes that job demands and resources not only have a direct influence on employees' well-being, but also an indirect influence on well-being through the use of emotional labour strategies as coping responses.

The following sections will firstly discuss the model more specifically in terms of the two forms of emotional labour strategy and of antecedents and consequences of emotional labour. Following that, a more in-depth discussion of each construct of interest and the hypothesized relationships among constructs will be presented.

Emotional Labour Strategies

As stated in chapter 2, an individual's felt emotions may be incongruent with organizationally required emotions. In order to conform to organizational requirements, employees have to suppress their true feelings and regulate their emotional expressions when they perceive dissonance between felt emotion and emotional requirement.

Therefore, emotional labour might be engaged in when people do not feel the organizationally required emotions (Hochschild, 1983). Grandey (2000) recommended the utilization of emotion regulation theory to characterize the performance of emotional

labour. Emotion regulation is defined as “the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions” (Gross, 1998b, p.275). According to Gross (1998a, 1998b), emotions may be regulated either at an antecedent-focused point or a response-focused point. Antecedent-focused emotional regulation occurs when an individual modifies the situation or the perception of the situation in an attempt to change emotions, while response-focused emotional involves modification of observable emotions (Gross, 1998b).

Gross (1998b) proposed four antecedent-focused emotion regulation strategies: situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment and cognitive change. The first two strategies refer to changing the situation, whereas the last two refer to changing one’s perception of the situation. This difference is important in the analysis of emotional regulation strategy. For example, Grandey (2000) argued that situation selection and situation modification are the least likely to be employed by service employees as they may not often have the ability or flexibility necessary to avoid or to modify their working situation. The choice of this type of emotion regulation may lead to an employee leaving the job (Grandey, 2000). Furthermore, she indicated that attentional deployment (changing the focus of one’s attention in the situation) and cognitive change (reappraisal of the meaning of the situation) are the two types of internally focused emotional regulation applicable to the service context, both akin to deep acting. In contrast, the response-focused strategy, response modulation, occurs when people modify their emotional expression in response to the situation, rather than attempting to change actual feelings or thoughts through adjusting the situation or the perception of the

situation (Gross, 1998b). This type of emotional regulation technique is similar to the process of surface acting (Grandey, 2000).

Some past studies (e.g., Beal, Trougakos, & Weiss, 2006; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2003; Totterdell & Holman, 2003) have also operationalized emotional labour strategies as either surface acting or deep acting. For example, Beal et al. (2006) argued that when emotional dissonance occurs at work, surface acting and deep acting are two regulation strategies used to help employees to express organizationally desired emotions. Surface acting typically involves suppressing felt emotions or faking unfelt emotions. When employees engage in surface acting, they change their outward expression but not their internal feelings. For example, employees may put on a smile during service interactions even when they are very upset. Thus, as discussed in chapter 2, inherent in surface acting is a continued discrepancy between felt and displayed emotions (Holman et al., 2002). In deep acting, employees try to experience the required emotions. When employees engage in deep acting, they alter their emotional expression through changing their inner feelings. For example, an employee may recall positive events (e.g., a fun birthday party) that alter his or her inner feelings (e.g., happy thoughts) to express appropriate emotions (e.g., cheerfulness). It should also be noted that although both surface and deep acting alter expressions, researchers have found that employees who are deep acting change internal feelings so that their expression is perceived as authentic by customers (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). In addition, deep acting will present a more authentic display than surface acting (Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen, & Sideman, 2005a).

As has been noted, no matter which acting level is utilized by employees, emotional labour is effortful (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Hochschild (1983), for example, argued that the performance of emotional labour requires effort, because “feelings do not erupt spontaneously or automatically in either deep acting or surface acting” (p.36). In general, surface acting requires relatively less effort, whereas deep acting requires more effort (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf, 2002). In addition, although these two types of emotional regulation involve efforts to display the required emotions, they represent different motives or intentions (Grandey, 2003). Surface acting is analogous with “faking in bad faith” in which employees comply with organizational requirements to display certain emotions by modifying their emotional expressions, and yet believe that such acting should not be part of the job (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). In contrast, deep acting is analogous with “faking in good faith” in which employees display organizationally desired emotions by modifying their inner feelings and believe that such expressions should be part of the job (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987).

Rubin et al. (2005) argued that although there are other coping strategies (e.g., violence, passive-aggressiveness, and task avoidance) in response to the state of perceived emotional dissonance, these strategies have negative impacts on job performance and therefore “are likely to be punished or at least heavily discouraged” (p.196). Accordingly, surface acting and deep acting are likely to be the strategy of choice utilized by employees to respond to emotional dissonance because these strategies “are attempts to produce organizationally desired and rewarded behaviour” (Rubin et al., 2005, p.196). As suggested by Ashforth and Tomiuk (2000), it is important to distinguish these

two coping strategies, surface acting and deep acting, because each suggests a fundamentally different internal state, and they may have differential effects on employees' well-being. For example, Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that deep acting was positively related to personal accomplishment, whereas surface acting was negatively related to personal accomplishment. Thus, the current research assumes that both surface acting and deep acting are emotional regulation strategies chosen to express organizationally required emotions when experiencing emotional dissonance.

The Antecedents of Emotional Labour Strategies

With regard to antecedents of emotional labour, a considerable body of research has shown that many variables influence the way in which emotional labour is performed (e.g., Diefendorff et al., 2005; Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Examples of these variables are display rules, emotional expressivity, interaction characteristics (e.g., intensity, routineness, frequency, and duration), job autonomy, social support, role identification, and individual differences (e.g., gender, self-monitoring, big five personality and affectivity) (Bono & Vey, 2005). Based on the JD-R model as previously described, these possible antecedents were grouped into two categories: job demands and resources.

Job Demands

Although there are obviously a wide variety of job demand variables such as role conflict, role ambiguity, stressful events, heavy workload, and pressure (Lee & Ashforth, 1996) that potentially could be considered in relation to the construct of "job demands",

the current research refers exclusively to emotional job demands inherent in employee-customer interactions. Emotional job demands are rooted in the interactions between employees and customers and the frequency of these interactions is crucial (Heuven, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Huisman, 2006). Hochschild (1983) argued that jobs high in emotional labour are characterized by large amounts of customer contact. When jobs involve a higher frequency of contact with others, or a longer duration of interactions, employees will need to make greater effort to regulate their emotional displays (Morris & Feldman, 1996, 1997). In addition, Grandey (2000) proposed that the job demands for a higher frequency or a longer duration of interactions may increase the likelihood that employees need to fake expressions (surface acting) or modify feelings to display required emotions (deep acting).

Apart from the frequency and duration of interactions, the frequency of interacting with negative emotional states of customers may be another determinant of how to perform emotional labour. As suggested by Grandey (2000), higher frequency of interactions with difficult customers may be viewed as stressful because it requires more emotion regulation. Encountering “difficult customers” who are complaining, picky or unreasonable is a common phenomenon in the context of service industries. For example, Bailey and McCollough (2000) reported that among 49 employees with different types of jobs, most employees dealt with difficult customers once or twice a day on average. Similarly, researchers in a diary study with working students found that customer incivility was one of the most common sources of anger in the workplace (Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004). Rafaeli and Sutton (1987) argued that “the verbal and nonverbal cues sent by target persons also may influence the feelings conveyed by an employee”

(p.28). This is similar to the phenomenon of emotional contagion. Emotional contagion is “the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize facial expressions, vocalizations, postures, and movements with those of another person and, consequently, to converge emotionally” (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994, p.5). As the emotional state of difficult customers (e.g., anger) can influence an employee’s emotions, the likelihood that employees need to exert more effort to perform emotional labour may be increased.

Given these considerations, in response to the requirements of their roles, employees need to decide to engage in either surface acting or deep acting when there is a discrepancy between felt emotions and required emotions. Different levels of emotional demands (e.g., frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers) may affect the choice of emotional labour strategies in the absence of the required emotions.

Resources

The major resources for employees include both personal resources such as personality (Ito & Brotheridge, 2003) and job resources, such as social support from various sources, job enhancement opportunities (e.g., control, participation in decision making, and autonomy), and reinforcement contingencies (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). How emotional labour is performed, through either surface acting or deep acting, is determined by the amount and quality of resources that the employee can draw upon when he or she does not experience the required emotions. In the current research, the construct of “resources” refers to individual differences in affectivity and the perception

that one has autonomy and organizational support at work. The reasons for focusing the current research on these variables are discussed below.

Employees' attributes can influence their emotional experience on the job.

Researchers have found that personality traits influence employees' tendencies to surface act or deep act (Diefendorff et al., 2005). The literature review has highlighted the importance of affectivity in the process of performing emotional labour because emotional labour involves affective reactions to others during service interactions.

Affectivity, which refers to a general tendency to experience positive or negative emotional states (Lazarus, 1993), may have a significant influence on how employees perform and experience emotional labour. For example, researchers have argued that employees with different affect perceive the same display rules differently (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000), and that affectivity may directly influence the amount of perceived emotional dissonance an employee experiences (Rubin et al., 2005). Affectivity can be viewed as a useful resource which may influence the performance of emotional labour. Research has shown that there are two general dimensions of affectivity: positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA) (Duffy, Ganster, & Shaw, 1998). PA can be viewed as a personal resource for people whose jobs require them to display positive emotions (e.g., bank tellers), whereas NA can be viewed as a resource for those whose jobs need them to display negative emotions (e.g., bill collectors).

In addition to personal resources, job resources also play an important role in relation to the performance of emotional labour. The role of social support and job autonomy has been incorporated into research on emotional labour (Abraham, 1998; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Totterdell & Holman,

2003; Wharton, 1993). For example, Grandey (2000) proposed that job autonomy as well as support from supervisors and co-workers may affect the level and type of emotional labour. A review of the extant literature, however, found that there is little research examining the potential influences of support and job autonomy on the choice of emotional labour strategies (surface acting and deep acting). This has raised the question of whether or not resources such as job autonomy and support can be predictors of the choice of emotional regulation techniques. The current research, therefore, attempts to clarify these relationships.

With regard to job autonomy, previous studies specifically focused on the effect of job autonomy on emotional dissonance and found that high job autonomy in the performance of emotional labour was negatively related to emotional dissonance (Abraham, 1998; Morris & Feldman, 1997). However, no empirical studies to date have examined the relationship between job autonomy and emotional labour strategies (surface acting and deep acting). People desire control over their work environment (Jex, 2002); therefore, their latitude of control can be viewed as the resource needed to accomplish their jobs. As autonomy increases in the job, employees tend to feel more personally responsible for the outcomes of their work (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). In addition, different levels of job autonomy have significant effects on job performance (Landy & Conte, 2004). Thus, the current research proposed that job autonomy plays a role in determining the performance of emotional labour. Although people in most service industries may not have control over their work role, employees who perceive that they have freedom, independence and discretion over their jobs may be motivated to use different emotional labour techniques in order to effectively accomplish their job.

In relation to support, researchers have suggested that social support enables individuals to better cope with the job stress related to emotional labour. For example, Hochschild (1983) found flight attendants utilize informal meetings with their colleagues to release negative emotions they have about difficult passengers. Abraham (1998) found that social support (emotional support from co-workers), was a moderator of emotional dissonance and job satisfaction, as it interacted with emotional dissonance to buffer against job dissatisfaction. These empirical studies, however, do not indicate how social support influences the choice of emotional labour strategies.

Social support can mean a variety of resources that help employees in their work (Searle, Bright, & Bochner, 2001) and sources of support can come from supervisors, co-workers, and the organization (Bradley & Cartwright, 2002). In the context of research on emotional labour, social support has been specifically focused on support from co-workers (Abraham, 1998), supervisors (Totterdell & Holman, 2003), or co-workers and supervisors (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002), but not on support from organizations. In order to address this gap, support is operationalized in the current research as perceived organizational support. It is also important to note that studies have shown that perceived organizational support is distinct from perceived supervisor support (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988). Perceived organizational support refers to individuals' global beliefs regarding how an organization treats them and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). When employees feel supported by their organization, they are more willing to perform better during encounters (Susskind, Kacmar, & Borchgrevink, 2003). In addition, employees with high perceived organizational support may perceive more contractual obligations to the organization

(Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). Therefore, employees perceiving higher support from their organization may be more likely to exert effort in emotional labour in order to reciprocate the good treatment provided by the organization. Perceived support at organizational level provides the resources needed to help employees to accomplish their job, which in turn, may influence an employee's choice of emotional labour strategies.

The Outcomes of Emotional Labour

Cropanzano, Weiss, and Elias (2004), in a review of the emotional labour literature, suggested that surface acting could be stressful, whereas deep acting could be beneficial, or at least not as harmful to the employee. Thus, the choice of different emotional labour strategies plays an important role, leading to differential effects on employees' well-being. Emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction are the two most frequently investigated psychological outcome variables in emotional labour research (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Zapf, 2002). Furthermore, research has shown that emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction are important predictors of work behaviours such as organizational citizenship, absenteeism and turnover (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Grandey et al., 2004; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Saari & Judge, 2004; Wegge, Schmitt, Parkes, & van Dick, 2007; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Thus, the current study will also focus on these two outcomes in order to provide a comparison with the findings of previous research. The extent to which employees experience emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction is expected to vary depending on the manner of their performance of emotional labour. As noted, surface acting and deep acting involve different levels of effort to express organizationally required emotions and represent

different motives or intentions. Given these differences, it is expected that differences exist between the outcomes of surface acting and deep acting.

In sum, based on the JD-R model, the proposed emotional labour model views job demands (frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers) as well as resources (affectivity, job autonomy, and perceived organizational support) as antecedents of emotional labour. The effects of emotional labour on employees' well-being are examined in relation to emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. In addition, job demands and resources also have a direct influence on emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction, respectively.

Structural equation modelling (SEM) researchers recommend comparing a proposed model to alternative models that are built on a theoretical rationale (MacCallum & Austin, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). As resources have been found to reduce strain (Kahn & Byosiene, 1992), the present research also examines an alternative model in which resources are also directly related to emotional exhaustion. It is assumed that resources can lessen the degree of emotional exhaustion regardless of the type of emotional labour performed. The inclusion of these additional paths is based on extant research suggesting that such links might exist. Research findings for these links will be discussed in relation to the following hypothesis development sections in greater detail.

The following sections will discuss the relationships among job demands and resources, emotional labour strategies, emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Specific hypotheses will be developed for empirical testing.

Development of Hypotheses

This section discusses how job demands (frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers) and resources (affectivity, job autonomy, and perceived organizational support) are related to emotional labour strategies (surface acting and deep acting), how emotional labour strategies are related to employees' well-being (emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction), and how job demands and resources are related to emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction, respectively. In addition, there is an alternative path from resources to emotional exhaustion. These links are shown in Figure 3.1 where the hypothesized links are represented by solid lines and alternative paths are represented by dashed lines. The relationships of job demands and resources with emotional labour strategies will be discussed, and then specific hypotheses will be presented and discussed.

The Relationships of Job Demands and Resources with Emotional Labour Strategies

Frequency of Interactions

Frequency of interactions is defined as how often an employee interacts with customers in a workplace. Morris and Feldman (1996, 1997) argued that employees will need greater effort to regulate their emotional expressions when their jobs require a higher frequency of contact with customers. Indeed, jobs with a high frequency of interaction with customers mean that more emotional demands are required for employees to engage in higher levels of emotional labour. Emotional demands for service

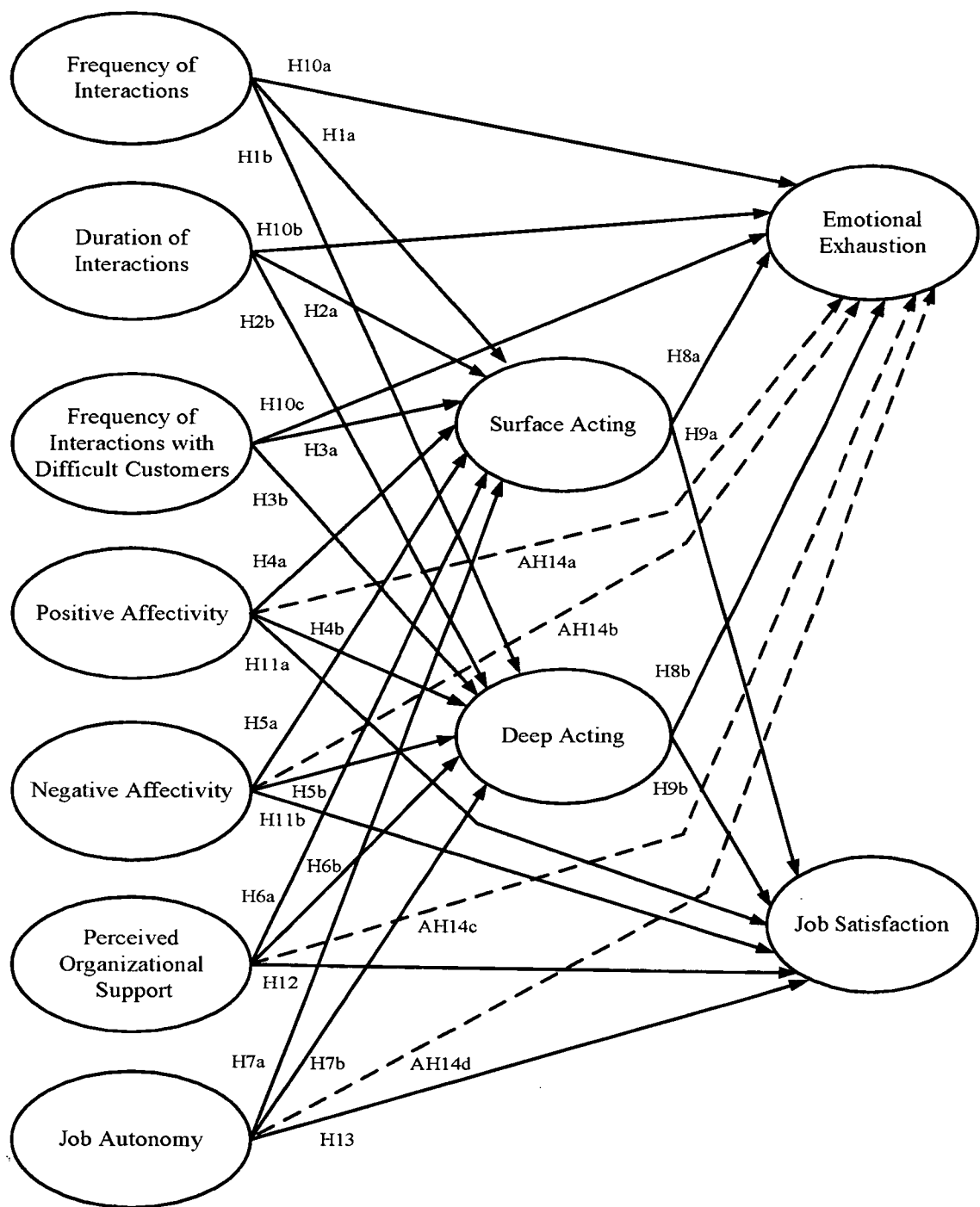


Figure 3.1. Proposed Testing Model. Hypothesized links are represented with solid arrows; alternative hypotheses are represented with dashed arrows.

jobs are that employees need to suppress felt emotions (e.g., upset feelings) and simultaneously display unfelt emotions (e.g., enthusiasm).

The level of emotional demands may affect the extent to which emotional regulation strategies are needed on the job. Previous empirical studies have shown an inconsistent relationship between the frequency of interactions and emotional labour strategies. For example, research found that there is a positive correlation between the frequency of interactions and both surface acting and deep acting, and that the relationship was stronger for surface acting (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). Similarly, Zammuner and Galli (2005b) found a positive correlation between frequency and surface acting. However, Diefendorff et al. (2005), in a study of 270 employees from sales, service, childcare, and clerical roles, failed to find positive correlations between these variables. Although previous research showed mixed evidence regarding the relationships between the frequency of interactions and surface acting and deep acting, the current research, based on Morris and Feldman's argument (1996), argued that frequency is positively related to surface acting and deep acting.

Morris and Feldman (1996) asserted that the more frequent the interactions with customers required by the job role, the more likely the employee will feel the need to regulate inappropriate emotions. It follows that, in order to conform to organizationally required emotions, employees need to regulate their emotions through either surface acting or deep acting. In addition, with a higher frequency of interactions, it may be easier for employees to merely modify their expression (surface acting) rather than taking more effort and time to change both their inner feelings and display of emotions (deep acting). Thus, three hypotheses are proposed.

H1a: Frequency of interactions is positively related to surface acting.

H1b: Frequency of interactions is positively related to deep acting.

H1c: Frequency of interactions is more strongly related to surface acting than deep acting.

Duration of Interactions

Duration of interactions refers to the amount of time that employees spend with a typical customer. Morris and Feldman (1996, 1997) proposed that a longer duration of interactions requires more effort and thus more emotional labour, whereas a shorter duration requires relatively less effort. They argued that there are two reasons why duration may affect the effort required to express organizationally desired emotion. First, the longer the interactions with customers, the less the use of scripts of interactions (e.g., have a nice day, thank you, or a simple smile). Consequently, longer interactions require greater attention and emotional stamina. As interactions of short duration often consist of highly scripted interaction formats (Rafaeli & Sutton 1989; Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988), employees may therefore require less effort in regulating emotions for these interactions. Second, the longer the interactions, the more personal information about customers can be learned by employees. "As the interaction unfolds, more personal information about the customer or client becomes available" (Morris & Feldman, 1997, p.259). This increases the likelihood that employees require more effort to regulate their emotional displays because it is more difficult for employees to avoid showing their personal feelings (Morris & Feldman, 1996, 1997).

The literature presented above implies that longer interactions require more emotional demand than shorter interactions, which in turn, may lead to different emotional regulation strategies. Research has shown that duration is positively correlated with deep acting (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Diefendorff et al., 2005), and negatively related to surface acting (Diefendorff et al., 2005). During longer interactions, more effort is needed to sustain the regulation process to avoid expressing inappropriate feelings and, in turn, deep acting may be the emotion regulation technique of choice. In contrast, during shorter interactions, employees may choose surface acting because there is not enough time for them to change their internal feelings and therefore it may be more convenient for employees to just put on a required emotion (e.g., a simple smile). Thus, two hypotheses are proposed.

H2a: Duration of interactions is negatively related to surface acting.

H2b: Duration of interactions is positively related to deep acting.

Frequency of Interactions with Difficult Customers

Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is defined as how often an employee interacts with difficult customers in a workplace. When negative emotional events occur (e.g., dealing with a complaining customer), employees will need to regulate their emotions in order to conform to the demands of the work role. As noted, displaying negative emotions is usually not an option for service employees. Therefore, in the course of interacting with difficult customers, employees experience more emotional demands in order to continually maintain a positive emotional state and simultaneously suppress negative emotions.

As noted earlier, during service encounters, the emotional state of difficult customers can influence an employee's emotions through emotional contagion. Therefore, it requires more effort for an employee to suppress felt negative emotions (e.g., anger), so that he or she is able to continually display organizationally desired emotions (e.g., friendliness). Zapf (2002) argued that the process of surface acting is partly a routine process, and this process can, but need not, involve conscious processes. In contrast, when an employee is deep acting, it involves a consciously regulated process. The process of deep acting often involves internal dialogues. Such inner dialogues do not work spontaneously during a service transaction because deep acting often involves conscious processes which are effortful (Zapf, 2002). Thus, deep acting requires more effort than surface acting.

Qualitative research from Hochschild (1983) and Bailey and McCollough (2000) found that service providers attempt to manage emotions, through either surface acting or deep acting, to display appropriate feelings when interacting with a difficult customer. Although their research did not explicitly indicate which choice an employee would be likely to make, other researchers showed that faking (i.e., surface acting) seems to be a chosen strategy due to negative emotions, such as anger, when employees have to face a difficult customer (Grandey et al., 2004; Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002; Rupp, McCance, Spencer, & Sonntag, 2008). For example, Grandey et al. (2004) found that employees who felt more stressed by customer aggression tended to use surface acting or vented emotions, while those who felt less stressed used deep acting. Thus, surface acting seems to be a strategy used to perform emotional labour when interacting with a difficult customer.

Based on the above arguments, it is proposed that employees tend to surface act when they face higher frequency of dealing with difficult customers because it may be easier to just put on a required emotion in that situation. In addition, frequent interactions with difficult customers might make it less likely that employees will attempt to make more effort to deep act. This leads to the following hypotheses.

H3a: Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is positively related to surface acting.

H3b: Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is negatively related to deep acting.

Affectivity

Affectivity has been defined as a general tendency to experience positive or negative emotional states or to react to objects (e.g., situations or people) in a specific way or with certain emotions (Lazarus, 1993). Research has identified two basic types of affectivity: positive affectivity (PA) and negative affectivity (NA). PA refers to the individual tendency to experience a variety of positive mood states, while NA refers to the tendency of people to experience a variety of negative mood states (Watson & Clark, 1984). People with high PA are more likely to feel joyful, enthusiastic, and active, whereas people with low levels of PA are more likely to be listless, sluggish, and apathetic. Contrary to PA, people with high NA tend to be anxious, nervous, pessimistic, and angry, while people with low levels of NA seem to be more calm, placid and relaxed (Cropanzano, James, & Konovsky, 1993).

Employees with different affectivity may perceive the same display rules differently (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000) and, therefore, they may choose different acting mechanisms. Indeed, some emotional labour studies have viewed individual differences as predictors affecting the choice of emotion regulation strategies (Bono & Vey, 2007; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Grandey, 2000; Gross & John, 2003; Liu et al., 2004; Totterdell & Holman, 2003). In particular, research has found that affectivity can affect the choice of emotional labour strategies.

Empirical evidence supports a significant and consistent relationship between affectivity (PA and NA) and surface acting. For example, research has shown that PA is negatively, and NA is positively, related to surface acting (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Diefendorff et al., 2005; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). However, previous studies have found inconsistent results regarding the relationship between affectivity and deep acting. For example, Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) found that PA and NA is positively related to deep acting, but Brotheridge and Lee (2003) found no relationships between these variables. Using extraversion and neuroticism as a proxy measure of PA and NA respectively, Diefendorff et al. (2005) found that extraversion was positively correlated with deep acting and neuroticism was negatively correlated with deep acting. However, extraversion and neuroticism were not significant predictors of deep acting when examined using simultaneous regression analyses.

The present research focuses on jobs that require a display of positive emotions, in which emotional labour requires the promotion of positive emotions and suppression of negative emotions. People high on PA possess a personal resource which enables them to easily respond more positively to all situations, and are thus more likely to change their

inner feelings (deep acting) by thinking positive thoughts than just faking a required emotion (surface acting). In contrast, NA can be viewed as the absence of resources to respond positively due to an individual's tendency to experience negative emotions and respond more negatively to all situations. Liu et al. (2004) suggested that high NA employees need to exert more effort to alleviate the differences between felt and displayed emotions. As people high on NA "may have difficulty suppressing the expression of negative emotions" (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000, p.167), it may be easier for them to modify their emotional expressions by just putting on a smile (surface acting) than to modify their inner feelings to express positive emotions (deep acting).

Based on the above arguments, it is plausible that a high NA employee will tend to engage in more surface acting and less deep acting, and a high PA employee may do less surface acting and more deep acting. This leads to the following hypotheses.

H4a: PA is negatively related to surface acting.

H4b: PA is positively related to deep acting.

H5a: NA is positively related to surface acting.

H5b: NA is negatively related to deep acting.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) occurs when "employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger et al., 1986, p.501). POS is grounded in the norm of reciprocity between employees and their organizations. Employees who perceive high levels of organizational support generally feel obliged to be committed to their

organizations, and to return that support by performing behaviours that support organizational goals (Wayne, Shore, & Linden, 1997). POS also raises an employee's expectancy that the organization will reward those who make greater efforts to fulfil organizational goals (effort-outcome expectancy) (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Wayne et al., 1997).

To date, there is only one empirical study examining the relationship of POS with emotional regulation strategy use (Gosserand, 2003). Gosserand found a significantly negative correlation between POS and surface acting and a significantly positive correlation between POS and deep acting. However, when using SEM to examine the predictive nature of these relationships relative to all other predictors of surface acting and deep acting (e.g., display rules, affectivity, and commitment to display rules), the POS to emotional regulation paths in the structural model were nonsignificant.

Although there is little research examining the relationship between POS and emotional labour strategies, it seems that this relationship exists because the more employees perceive support from their organization the more emotional resources are available for them to regulate emotion. As POS can fulfil an employee's social and emotional needs (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), it "provides resources that enable workers to accomplish work objectives" (Hochwarter, Witt, Treadway, & Ferris, 2006, p.483). For example, Brotheridge and Lee (2002) argued that social support is an important resource for employees engaged in emotional labour and found that support from coworkers and supervisors would lead employees to perform less surface acting. POS, therefore, can be viewed as a useful job resource which may influence employees' choice of emotional labour strategies.

Employees who are high on POS may feel that they would have support from the organization whenever they need it. Therefore, they are more capable of modifying their inner feelings in order to display organizationally required emotions (deep acting). In addition, based on the expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964), employees will be motivated to exert more effort when they believe that effort will lead to reward. Therefore, employees may be more motivated to exert high levels of effort to deep act when they need to perform emotional labour. As noted, deep acting requires more effort than surface acting because employees who are deep acting change their inner feelings and outward expression. It is possible that when employees perceive a high level of support from their organization, they may feel obligated to return it by choosing a deep acting strategy rather than surface acting.

Based on the preceding arguments, perceiving a high level of organizational support may provide socio-emotional resources, strengthen the employees' expectations that the organization would value and reward their contributions, and produce a sense of obligation toward the employing organization's welfare. Employees therefore may choose to make more effort to perform emotional labour (deep acting). In contrast, employees who feel a low level of POS may simply choose a less effortful way, surface acting, to perform emotional labour. This leads to the following hypotheses.

H6a: POS is negatively related to surface acting.

H6b: POS is positively related to deep acting.

Job Autonomy

Job autonomy refers to the latitude of control employees have over their job. It has been defined as “the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p.258). Job autonomy is related to employees’ ability to control various aspects of their job. However, Grandey et al. (2005b) argued that the latitude of control employees have over their job does not necessarily decrease the need to control tempers and to display organizationally desired emotions during service encounters.

In the service industry, customer-service providers may have display rules for how emotions should be expressed during a service interaction. However, it does not mean that service workers who routinely display emotions have no control over their emotion labour process (Tolich, 1993). Indeed, employees may objectively have low levels of job autonomy, but the differences in their perceptions of autonomy may have an influence on emotional regulation strategy use. Although Grandey (2000) proposed that job autonomy may influence the level of emotional labour performed, Totterdell and Holman (2003) did not find a positive relationship between job autonomy and employees’ levels of emotion regulation. In addition, there have been no studies to date specifically examining the relationship between job autonomy and emotional labour strategies; therefore, more research is needed in order to understand the effects of job autonomy on the choice of emotional labour strategies.

As jobs with autonomy give employees a feeling of personal responsibility for the outcomes of the work (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), employees’ perception of job

autonomy may motivate them to exert greater effort to fulfil their job requirements. This perception can be viewed as a job resource which can motivate employees to effectively perform emotional labour. In order to effectively perform emotional labour, employees perceiving high levels of job autonomy may be more willing to put effort into deep acting instead of surface acting. The reason for this is that surface acting and deep acting result in different levels of customer service performance. In support of this view, Grandey (2003) found that deep acting was positively and surface acting was negatively related to affective delivery. Additionally, as noted previously, deep acting will be perceived as a more authentic display by customers (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey et al., 2005a). Deep acting leads to better customer service performance than surface acting does. Therefore, employees who perceive the latitude of control over their job may use deep acting as an emotional labour strategy because they have a feeling of personal responsibility for job performance. Taken together, this leads to the following hypotheses.

H7a: Job autonomy is negatively related to surface acting.

H7b: Job autonomy is positively related to deep acting.

The preceding section discussed how job demands and resources may affect the choice of emotional labour strategies. The following section will discuss the effects of emotional labour strategies on emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Specific hypotheses are developed.

The Relationships between Emotional Labour Strategies and Emotional Exhaustion and Job Satisfaction

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion refers to a state of energy depletion caused by excessive emotional demands in work (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Emotional exhaustion is considered as the key characteristic of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). As Lee and Asforth (1996) argued, job stress is related to job burnout, specifically to emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Emotional exhaustion is viewed as the first step of the process of burnout; therefore, it can be examined without considering the two other dimensions of depersonalization and lack of accomplishment (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993)

People engaged in interpersonal jobs in which there is a greater frequency, duration, and attentiveness of interaction with customers are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2001; Saxton, Phillips, & Blakeney, 1991). Although Grandey (2000) stated that “emotional labour may result in good organizational performance, but may have consequences for the employees’ health” (p.107), employees may not experience emotional exhaustion as a result of using different regulation strategies. Thus, the type of acting that they employ to deal with these demands matters.

As stated in chapter 2, when there is a discrepancy between what people feel and what they are required to express by the organization, they may use emotional labour strategies in order to display required emotions. However, when employees are surface acting, they experience person-role conflict (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987) and emotional

dissonance (Grandey, 2003; Zerbe, 2000; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). As stated earlier, research has shown that emotional dissonance is only associated with surface acting but not with deep acting (Holman et al., 2002). Frequent surface acting is a psychologically unproductive, dysfunctional regulation process in that it aggravates emotional dissonance because an employee expresses an untrue, false emotion, leading to distress and psychological ill-being (Zammuner & Galli, 2005a). In surface acting, employees may fake a smile by suppressing irritation toward a complaining customer. Therefore, surface acting, showing expressions discrepant from inner feelings, is likely to relate to emotional exhaustion due to the presence of emotional dissonance and the effort of suppressing true feelings. In contrast, when employees regulate emotions through deep acting, they do not experience emotional dissonance because they are willing to exert effort to change their internal experience of emotion and therefore display organizationally desired emotions. For example, employees may put themselves in a complaining customer's shoes so that they can feel empathy and express concern.

A number of empirical studies have found that surface acting is significantly related to emotional exhaustion; however, deep acting is not significantly related to emotional exhaustion (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007; Montgomery et al., 2006; Zammuner & Galli, 2005a, b); but is significantly related to personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). The reason may be that “the payoffs of deep acting—reduced emotional dissonance and positive reactions from customers—may restore an employee's emotional resources in a way that surface acting cannot” (Grandey, 2003, p.93). Brotheridge and Lee (2002) argued that the effect of emotional labour (surface acting and

deep acting) on burnout depends on the balance of the effortful process that expends resources to regulate emotion and the process for recovering resources through rewarding social relationships. Although surface acting and deep acting are both effortful, surface acting does not promote resource gain from rewarding relationships, like deep acting does (Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). For example, displays of emotion in deep acting are authentic, which would result in favourable responses from customers (Cote, 2005). Therefore, the strain of performing emotion labour through deep acting would be lessened and, in turn, not only enhance an employee's sense of personal accomplishment but also decrease his or her feelings of emotional exhaustion. Indeed, Zhang and Zhu (2008), in a study of Chinese college teachers, found that deep acting was negatively related to emotional exhaustion and reduced accomplishment.

Taken together, if employees are deep acting (faking in good faith), they identify with display rules as part of their work role and are willing to comply with organizational emotion demands. Using deep acting as an emotion regulation strategy helps employees to restore their emotional resource because they receive positive feedback from customers. In contrast, if employees are surface acting (faking in bad faith), they fail to internalize display rules and do not think of them as part of their job. In addition, people engaging in surface acting will still experience emotional dissonance which leads to emotional exhaustion. Given the above discussion, two hypotheses are proposed.

H8a: Surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

H8b: Deep acting is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976, p.1300). It reflects how employees evaluate their job and work context, and has often served as a proxy for employees’ well-being at work (Grandey, 2000). Hochschild (1983) argued that any organizational management of emotions would be inherently unsatisfying. If employees are not naturally experiencing the organizationally required emotions, they must make an effort to regulate their emotions in order to display the required emotions. In this case, an employee who reports performing high levels of emotional labour would experience a lower level of job satisfaction (Grandey, 2000). However, surface acting and deep acting involve different levels of effort to express organizationally required emotions and represent different intentions. Given these differences, it is possible that the two types of emotional regulation (acting) may have different impacts on an employee’s affective experiences in the job.

Several empirical studies have support the negative relationship between surface acting and job satisfaction (Grandey, 2003; Grandey et al., 2005b; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). For example, Grandey et al. (2005b) found that response-focused emotion regulation (surface acting) is negatively related to job satisfaction for U.S. employees. However, although a recent study found that deep acting was positively related to job satisfaction (Zhang & Zhu, 2008), there is little evidence in the literature to support the positive relationship between deep acting and job satisfaction. As has been noted, when an employee utilizes deep acting (faking in good faith) to express organizationally required emotions, he or she makes an effort to change his or her internal feelings in order to

generate required emotions. As the current research focuses on the need to display positive emotions, changing internal feelings to express positive emotions, such as smiling, actually may put an employee in a good mood. Therefore, a positive relationship between deep acting and job satisfaction can be expected.

In addition, there is some indirect evidence that this positive relationship may exist. Research has found that employees who are deep acting are more likely to experience personal accomplishment (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003), as the expressions generated by deep acting are perceived as authentic and produce positive reactions from customers (Grandey, 2003; Grandey et al., 2005a). In this case, deep acting may contribute to job satisfaction because it results in more successful interactions with customers and as such is potentially pleasant. In contrast, when an employee chooses surface acting (faking in bad faith) to perform emotional labour, he or she displays organizationally desired emotions by suppressing true emotions (without changing his or her inner feelings). The suppression of true feelings was found to be negatively related to job satisfaction (Rutter & Fielding, 1988). In addition, higher levels of emotional dissonance (conceptually similar to surface acting) were negatively related to personal accomplishment (Kruml & Geddes, 2000b) and job satisfaction (Abraham, 1998; Lewig & Dollard, 2003; Morris & Feldman, 1997). Therefore, employees who are surface acting are expected to experience lower levels of job satisfaction. The following hypotheses are proposed.

H9a: Surface acting is negatively related to job satisfaction.

H9b: Deep acting is positively related to job satisfaction.

The foregoing section discussed and developed specific hypotheses regarding the relationships between emotional labour strategies and emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. This study will now turn to discuss the relationship between job demands and emotional exhaustion.

The Relationship between Job Demands and Emotional Exhaustion

Hochschild (1983) proposed that the emotional demands of interpersonal work may cause employee stress. Hobfoll and Freedy (1993) argued that demands trigger strain in the form of physical and emotional exhaustion. The demand of interpersonal interactions affects the levels of emotional exhaustion (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). In particular, previous research has argued that the frequency or duration of interactions with clients/customers could be viewed as a predictor of burnout, or emotional exhaustion (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Thus, a high level of long term customer contact is inherently stressful, increasing the likelihood that an employee may experience emotional exhaustion. In addition, the potential stressfulness of interactions is likely to be affected by the difficulty of clients (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). When dealing with a difficult customer, employees may feel more stressed because greater emotional demands are required to express organizationally desired emotion, leading to emotional exhaustion.

Empirical studies have demonstrated that emotional job demands (emotion work) are positively related to emotional exhaustion (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Zapf, Seifert, Schmutte, Mertini, & Holz, 2001). For example, Derry, Iverson, and Walsh (2002) found

that call centre employees are more likely to suffer from emotional exhaustion when they deal with difficult customers (e.g., aggressive, rude, or demanding). However, the relationships between frequency and duration of interactions with customers and emotional exhaustion are less clear. Some researchers failed to find evidence to support these relationships (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Cordes, Dougherty, & Blum, 1997; Morris & Feldman, 1997), while others found that number of clients and extent of contact are positively related to emotional exhaustion (Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007). In addition, Derry et al. (2002) found that duration of interaction (e.g., length of calls) is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Higher frequency or longer interactions mean that more emotional demands are needed to perform emotional labour, because these interactions may increase the chance that employees have to suppress felt emotions (e.g., anger) and simultaneously express unfelt emotions (e.g., happiness). This may engender stress because employees cannot display naturally felt emotions. Frequent interactions with difficult customers can contribute to burnout as such interactions are unpleasant and can be viewed as an indicator of additional emotional demands. This involves more effort needed to continually display appropriate emotions while simultaneously accomplishing his or her job. Hence, it is proposed that emotional job demands are positively related to emotional exhaustion. That is, employees whose jobs require high frequency and long duration of customer interactions and frequent interactions with difficult customers are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion. This leads to the following hypotheses.

H10a: Frequency of interactions is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

H10b: Duration of interactions is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

H10c: Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

The preceding section discussed and developed hypotheses in relation to the relationship between job demands and emotional exhaustion. The following section will now discuss and develop hypotheses regarding the relationship between resources and job satisfaction.

The Relationships between Resources and Job Satisfaction

Affectivity

As stated previously, affectivity refers to the dispositional tendency to experience certain emotional states over time such as enthusiasm, optimism, anger, and nervousness. A great deal of existing research has indicated the links between dispositional affect and job-related attitudes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intention to leave, and burnout (Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1993; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Cropanzano et al., 1993; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & Chermont, 2003; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Specifically, past research has provided evidence that job satisfaction is, in part, dispositionally based (Judge & Larsen, 2001). Indeed, research has considered affect as an antecedent of job satisfaction. Two meta-analytic reviews have demonstrated the affect-job satisfaction relationship. Connolly and Viswesvaran (2000) reported estimated true score correlations of PA and NA with job satisfaction of .49 and -.33, respectively. Thoresen et al. (2003) also found that PA was

positively related to job satisfaction (estimated mean population correlation = .34) and NA was negatively related to job satisfaction (estimated mean population correlation = -.34).

Based on the above discussion, it is expected in the current investigation that affectivity may directly relate to job satisfaction. Regardless of whether or not people engage in surface acting or deep acting as a strategy for performing emotional labour, affectivity may influence how people appraise their jobs. The disposition of people who are high on PA (experience positive emotions often) is more likely to positively influence their affective reactions to their jobs, whereas people who are high on NA (experience negative emotions often) are more likely to be dissatisfied with their work environment. Therefore, this leads to the following hypotheses.

H11a: PA is positively related to job satisfaction.

H11b: NA is negatively related to job satisfaction.

Perceived Organizational Support

On the basis of organizational support theory, POS is assumed to serve as a socioemotional resource for employees such as those of respect, caring, and approval (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). POS reflects a situation in which an organization's management cares about employees' goals and values, will listen to complaints, and will help them to cope with difficulties. Employees with high levels of POS may expect that their organization would provide them with the resources (e.g., sympathetic understanding, counselling services, and material aid) needed to deal with

stressful situations, which would help meet the need for emotional support (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; George, Reed, Ballard, Colin, & Fielding, 1993).

Employees tend to consider a supportive organization as a caring workplace (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997). Perceiving high levels of organizational support may, therefore, result in employees' thinking that the environment is more pleasant. In this case, perceptions of high organizational support increase the likelihood that a given employee can meet his or her own needs, thereby enhancing satisfaction. Much of the research has provided evidence that POS is strongly related to employees' well-being, in particular to job satisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen, 1998; Bradley & Cartwright, 2002; Burke, 2003; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Laschinger, Purdy, Cho, & Almost, 2006; Stamper & Johlke, 2003),

From the preceding discussion, perceiving organizational support may indicate a supportive work environment, which can be considered as a valued resource for employees. There is strong evidence that employees who perceive that their organization supports them are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs. Hence, the following hypothesis is suggested.

H12: POS is positively related to job satisfaction.

Job Autonomy

Job autonomy can also be an intangible reward which organizations utilize to influence employees' behaviour. As stated, people desire control over their work environment. Many studies of job stress have shown that job control is positively related to people's well-being (e.g., Kahn & Byosiore, 1992). It seems that jobs that entail

autonomy give employees the opportunity to make their own decisions, in terms of how to perform their job, leading to more satisfaction with the job.

Evidence supports the idea that employees with more job autonomy have more job satisfaction, compared to those with less job autonomy (Beehr & Drexler, 1986; Cohrs, Andrea, & Dorothea, 2006; DeVaro, Li, & Brookshire, 2007; Spector, 1986). For example, Spector's (1986) meta-analysis found that employees perceiving high levels of control over their jobs were more satisfied, committed, and motivated. Accordingly, an employee's perception of control is expected to be directly related to job satisfaction, regardless of whether or not an employee engages in either surface acting or deep acting. The following hypothesis is proposed.

H13: Job autonomy is positively related to job satisfaction.

The preceding section examined and presented hypotheses regarding the relationship between resources and job satisfaction. The following section will now discuss and develop hypotheses in relation to the relationship between resources and emotional exhaustion.

The Relationship between Resources and Emotional Exhaustion

The proposed theoretical model also includes some alternative paths for testing in the current research which are based on prior research suggesting that other links might exist. These alternative paths, which are from affectivity, perceived organizational support and job autonomy to emotional exhaustion are discussed below.

Affectivity

Research has suggested that personality influences people's appraisal of the types of stressors which can either cause or prevent emotional exhaustion (Zellars, Perrewe, & Hochwarter, 2000). High PA individuals tend to report lower levels of stress (Chiu & Kosinski, 1998), whereas those who are high NA tend to report higher levels of stress (Chiu & Kosinski, 1998; Judge, Erez, & Thoresen, 2000). Thoresen et al. (2003, p.917) argued that "high-NA persons experienced increased strain in part because they were less likely to engage in cognitive efforts to focus attention away from negative aspects of the job environment".

Affectivity is also predictive of burnout (Kahn, Schneider, Jenkins-Henkelman, & Moyle, 2006). A meta-analysis (Thoresen et al., 2003) revealed that PA was negatively related to emotional exhaustion (estimated mean population correlation = $-.32$) and NA was most strongly and positively related to emotional exhaustion (estimated mean population correlation = $.54$). Therefore, regardless of whether or not people engage in emotional labour, it is expected that people high on PA (e.g., optimism and enthusiasm) are less likely to experience emotional exhaustion, whereas people high on NA (e.g., pessimism, anxiousness) are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion. This leads to the following alternative hypotheses (AH).

AH14a: PA is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

AH14b: NA is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

Perceive Organizational Support

As stated previously, POS provides a socioemotional resource for employees to assist them in coping with stressful events. Employees perceiving support from the organizational level tend to think that the organization cares about their well-being and will provide help whenever they need it. This supportive work environment can help employees to alleviate the feeling of exhaustion from their job. Conversely, strain may occur when employees feel they no longer have support from their organization to handle job stressors such as role ambiguity, role conflict, work load, and stressful events. Lee and Ashforth (1996), in a meta-analysis, found that social support, supervisor support and coworker support are negatively related to emotional exhaustion. In addition, a meta-analysis (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) indicated a negative relationship between POS and strains. Recent studies also found that POS was negatively related to emotional exhaustion (Fiksenbaum, Marjanovic, Greenglass, & Coffey, 2006; Laschinger et al., 2006). As the current research focuses on support from the organizational level, it is expected that POS may link to emotional exhaustion independent of its relationships with emotional labour strategies. Therefore, the current study makes the following alternative hypothesis.

AH14c: POS is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Job Autonomy

Different levels of job autonomy significantly affect work stress (Landy & Conte, 2004). The latitude of control people have over their job can reduce strain. In support of this view, a meta-analysis conducted by Spector (1986), showed that perceived job

autonomy is negatively related to several types of strain. Recent research has also shown that the absence of job resources, such as social support and control, is linked to burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). People who have little participation in decision making and a lack of autonomy tend to experience a high level of burnout (Maslach et al., 2001). Evidence has also shown a negative relationship between job autonomy and emotional exhaustion (Grandey et al., 2005b; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Wharton, 1993). For example, a study by Wharton (1993) found that job autonomy decreased the likelihood of emotional exhaustion for emotional labourers and non-emotional labourers, but the effect was greater among emotional labourers.

Taken together, the evidence suggests that job autonomy provides resources to counteract the depletion of resources from work stress. In other words, possessing a higher level of autonomy gives employees the opportunity to make their own decisions in terms of how to perform their job, leading to less exhaustion. Thus, employees perceiving high levels of job autonomy are expected to experience less emotional exhaustion. The following alternative hypothesis is proposed.

AH14d: Job autonomy is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a review of the literature regarding the constructs of the proposed theoretical model. Building on the work of Job Demands-Resources model and the emotional labour literature, the current research proposes a new integrated framework to investigate the antecedents and consequences of emotional labour. The proposed antecedents of emotional labour strategies include job demands (frequency of interactions,

duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers) and resources (affectivity, perceived organizational support, and job autonomy). The consequences of emotional labour are emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Hence, emotional labour strategies (surface acting and deep acting) are proposed to play mediating roles in the proposed theoretical model.

Based on theoretical and empirical rational for the relationships among the constructs, research hypotheses were formulated and discussed. It is proposed that job demands and resources have both a direct relationship with emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction, respectively and an indirect relationship with emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction through surface acting and deep acting. In addition, this study proposed alternative paths by which resources have direct links to emotional exhaustion, regardless of whether or not people engage in emotional labour. A summary of the proposed hypotheses is presented in Table 3.1.

The next chapter presents details of the research design and methodology adopted in the current research that enabled the testing of the hypotheses developed in this chapter.

Table 3.1. Proposed Hypotheses

Hypotheses
H1a: Frequency of interactions is positively related to surface acting.
H1b: Frequency of interactions is positively related to deep acting.
H1c: Frequency of interactions is more strongly related to surface acting than deep acting.
H2a: Duration of interactions is negatively related to surface acting.
H2b: Duration of interactions is positively related to deep acting.
H3a: Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is positively related to surface acting.
H3b: Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is negatively related to deep acting.
H4a: PA is negatively related to surface acting.
H4b: PA is positively related to deep acting.
H5a: NA is positively related to surface acting.
H5b: NA is negatively related to deep acting.
H6a: POS is negatively related to surface acting.
H6b: POS is positively related to deep acting.
H7a: Job autonomy is negatively related to surface acting.
H7b: Job autonomy is positively related to deep acting.
H8a: Surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion.
H8b: Deep acting is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.
H9a: Surface acting is negatively related to job satisfaction.
H9b: Deep acting is positively related to job satisfaction.
H10a: Frequency of interactions is positively related to emotional exhaustion.
H10b: Duration of interactions is positively related to emotional exhaustion.
H10c: Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is positively related to emotional exhaustion.
H11a: PA is positively related to job satisfaction.
H11b: NA is negatively related to job satisfaction.
H12: POS is positively related to job satisfaction.
H13: Job autonomy is positively related to job satisfaction.
AH14a: PA is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.
AH14b: NA is positively related to emotional exhaustion.
AH14c: POS is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.
AH14d: Job autonomy is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Method

Introduction

The preceding chapters have presented the background of the study, reviewed relevant literature related to emotional labour, provided the theoretical model, and proposed the hypotheses to be tested. This chapter provides a discussion of the research methodology used to undertake the current research. It begins with a discussion of the research design and then provides background information to service industries in Taiwan. Following this, the sampling plan and data collection procedures, and the measurement of the variables of interest are discussed. Finally, the analytical method, structural equation modelling (SEM) employed in the present research to test the research hypotheses, is described and discussed with reference to specific issues that need to be understood for the sound application of this technique and the interpretation of the results.

Research Design

The current research obtained ethical approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee (Tasmania) Network of the University of Tasmania (see Appendix A). Generally, research on emotional labour has been dominated by cross-sectional studies. However, cross-sectional data alone cannot provide firm assessments of antecedents and outcomes of emotional labour (Morris & Feldman, 1997). As suggested by Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) and Zapf (2002), future studies should use longitudinal data to assess

the relationships between emotional labour and its outcomes. The current study, therefore, employed a longitudinal design, in which independent and dependent variables were gathered at different points in time, to further assess the links among the antecedents of emotional labour, the constructs of emotional labour and their impact on employees' well-being.

The current research used survey data to test the theoretical model of emotional labour which is the most common way of conducting quantitative hypothesis testing (Neuman, 2003). The data analysed in the current study was collected via a self-administered questionnaire. Compared with other types of surveys such as telephone and face to face interviews, self-administered questionnaires are the cheapest and can provide greater accessibility to a relatively large number of participants in a wide geographic area (Hoyle, Harris, & Judd, 2002; Neuman, 2003). "When constructed and used properly, a questionnaire is a powerful scientific instrument for measuring different variables" (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, & Zechmeister, 2000, p.135). This method can also avoid interviewer bias and assure anonymity (Hoyle et al., 2002; Neuman, 2003; Sarantakos, 2005).

Survey research is designed to measure the nature of people's thoughts, opinion, and feelings (Shaughnessy et al., 2000). The use of a structured, self-report questionnaire survey enables perceptual data to be confidentially and inexpensively collected from a targeted population. As the present research is interested in an employee's internal states such as perceptions (e.g., perceived organizational support and job satisfaction), a self-administered questionnaire survey was deemed a suitable method for collecting the type of data required to test the theoretical models in the current research. In addition, this

method was chosen due to its efficiency for accessing a large number of respondents as a result of the large sample sizes required for analytical purposes. The issue of sample size for structural equation modelling will be discussed specifically in relation to the analytical technique.

As the current research uses a single source of data collection (self-administered questionnaire) to assess predictive relationships, common method variance may cause concern. Research has shown that using a single source to measure variables, usually self-report surveys, may inflate correlations among variables. Such problems threaten the internal validity of the conclusions about the relationships between measures (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). However, Spector (2006) argued that “empirical evidence is discussed casting doubt that the method itself produces systematic variance in observations that inflates correlations to any significant degree” (p.221). In addition, he argued that if research is interested in people’s internal states, such as attitudes, emotions, perceptions, and values, it would be reasonable to use monomethod self-reports because it is difficult to get accurate information about internal states with anything other than self-report. As the variables of interest in the current research are by definition perceptual measures, the researcher cannot obtain such information from alternative sources (e.g., supervisor or co-worker rating). The present research, therefore, utilizes other techniques that can be helpful in controlling for common method variance suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003). The following sections will show how these concerns are addressed.

Time-lag studies (e.g., a longitudinal design) can reduce common method variance because the independent and dependent variables are gathered on different questionnaires and at different points in time (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In the current

research, the time lag between the two collections was approximately six months. Independent variables (frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, frequency of interactions with difficult customers, affectivity, perceived organizational support, and job autonomy) and mediating variables (surface acting and deep acting) were collected at Time 1, while the dependent variables (emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction) were gathered at Time 2. Data collection at two points in time strengthened the assessment of how the dependent variables were influenced by the independent and intervening variables. As data were collected at two points in time, a tracking code was employed as identification to match participants at Time 1 with those at Time 2.

Apart from collecting data at two different points in time, questionnaire design can also be utilized to control for common method variance. There are several ways that questionnaire can be designed to reduce common method variance, such as protecting respondent anonymity and reducing evaluation anxiety, counterbalancing question order, avoiding ambiguous or unfamiliar terms, and using different scale endpoints and formats (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Thus, in the current study, each questionnaire included an information sheet to invite voluntary participation, to explain the purpose of the study, to address issues relating to confidentiality and anonymity, to assure respondents that there are no right or wrong answers, and to advise them how to complete and return the survey. In addition, the constructs of interest were measured using different point Likert-type scales, which can diminish “method biases caused by commonalities in scale endpoints and anchoring effects” (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p.888).

There are many statistical remedies (e.g., Harman’s single-factor test, partial correlation procedure, and multiple method factors) that have been used to control for

common method biases (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Each statistical remedy has its own advantages and disadvantages. After using procedural remedies related to questionnaire design and separation the measures of the dependent and independent variables, Harman's Single Factor procedure was used to examine whether common method variance was a potential problem in the present research. This statistical method has been one of the most widely used techniques to address the issue of common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The procedure assumes that if method variance is largely responsible for the co-variation among the measures, a single factor model should fit the data well. It should be noted that Malhotra, Kim, and Patil (2006) argued that although Harman's test is a simple and straightforward approach, this technique is known to be highly conservative in detecting biases.

The Service Industry in Taiwan

The target population in the current research was full time employees in Taiwan's service industry whose job characteristics require them to display positive emotions to customers. Taiwan has clearly experienced a move from an economy driven by manufacturing industries to one dominated by service industries. In 1991, the service industry accounted for only 58.33 per cent of Taiwan's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). In 2007, Taiwan's service industries accounted for 71.1% of GDP, which is similar to the situation in Australia (70.6%) and the United States (78.5%) (Central Intelligence Agency, 2008). Certain government actions in Taiwan have triggered this change. For example, the Taiwanese government adopted a series of measures to open up domestic markets, such as fast food and telecommunications, to foreign competition, and to liberalize the

domestic finance and insurance sectors. As in the economies of Western countries such as the United States, France and Germany, the service industry now represents a dynamic and important sector of the Taiwanese economy. With the continued growth of the service sector in Taiwan, there is a need for a better understanding of emotional labour in Taiwan's service industry.

According to Gordon (1989), some cultures are more institutionally-oriented, with strong norms about regulating emotions to fulfil institutional roles and standards, whereas other cultures which are impulsively-oriented value expressing unregulated emotions. American emotional culture is more institutionally oriented with rigid expectations for what are acceptable displays with the public (Grandey et al., 2005b). There may be concerns about emotional culture differences between the United States and Taiwan when analysing employees' emotional expressions in the workplace. However, researchers argued that some Asian cultures (e.g., China) have a strong norm to control emotions as part of institutional roles (e.g., to express positive and suppress negative feelings in public) (Grandey et al., 2005b). In addition, research has found that employees' expression of positive emotions such as greetings and smiles are viewed favourably by U.S., Japanese, and Taiwanese customers (Tsai, 2001; Tsai & Huang, 2002; Winsted, 1997). For example, Tsai (2001), in his study of retail shoe stores in Taiwan, found that employees' positive emotional displays (e.g., smiling) would increase customers' willingness to visit the store again. Positive emotions displayed by service providers would indeed make Taiwanese customers feel very satisfied. Many organizations in Taiwan have slogans such as "treat customers as guests", which emphasizes expressing friendliness and warmth towards their

customers. Thus, employees in Taiwan's service industries would also have the norm to act positively and hide negative feelings similarly to U.S. employees.

Taiwan's service industries, indeed, have been profoundly influenced by cultural norms in the United States. The notion that "the customer is always right" has been widely acknowledged in Taiwanese society, that is, employees in service industries should smile and act friendly while interacting with customers. "Service with a smile" and "friendly people wanted" have become very typical advertisements in Taiwan's service industry because a common belief held by many employers is that displaying positive emotions such as enthusiasm, kindness, and friendliness influences customer satisfaction.

Awareness about the importance of service quality and competitiveness has spread in the Taiwanese service industry. Many organizations' corporate mission statements clearly address the issue of the importance of providing quality service to their customers. For example, the mission of EVA Air, one of the international airlines in Taiwan, is "EVA Air is soaring to greater heights to give international travelers exceptional services that exceed their expectations" (EVA AIR, 2008).

Sample

As expected, employees within the same occupation may encounter similar customer interactions (e.g., similar frequency and duration). The constructs of interest such as the frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers are needed to ensure sample variability for this study. As suggested by Johns (1991), the goal of a sampling strategy should be to increase the

sensitivity of statistical tests when there is the potential for restricted variance in the constructs being measured. The present study sampled individuals from “people work” occupations (Hochschild, 1983). As stated in chapter 1, jobs involving emotional labour can be classified into professional and technical workers, managers and administrators, sales workers, clerical workers, service workers in public households, and service workers in private households. In this study, some examples of these occupations include bank tellers, cashiers, receptionists, health service workers, retail sales workers, salesmen, secretaries, and waiters/waitresses. It cannot be claimed, of course, that the sample is representative of all service industries in Taiwan. However given the paucity of research on the effects of emotional labour in Taiwan’s service industry, these data represent testing of a theoretical model.

Data Collection

The selection of service industry firms in Taiwan is based on Hochschild’s definition from page 12. To obtain the diverse samples needed in this study, the researcher, using relationship networks, initially contacted different organizations in the service industry such as hotels, banks, department stores, hospitals, real estate agencies, and supermarkets to solicit their participation in this research. Once representatives of organizations agreed to participate in this survey, the researcher talked to them first to clarify the definition of “service-related jobs” and advise them on the process of data collection.

Data were collected at two different points in time. At Time 1, the representatives distributed the questionnaire with an information sheet (see Appendix B) to full-time

employees whose jobs entailed expressing positive emotions during service interactions. The information sheet for participants explained the purpose of the study and informed them that their participation would be voluntary and their responses would be confidential. In order to assure confidentiality, participants were asked to seal the completed questionnaire in a provided reply paid envelope and return it to the researcher within 14 days of distribution. At Time 2, approximately six months later, another questionnaire with an information sheet (see Appendix C) was distributed to participants through the representatives of organizations. Again, the information sheet informed participants of the purpose of the study and the assurance of confidentiality. The participants were asked to seal the completed questionnaire in a reply paid envelope and to return it within 14 days.

Since a major problem with mailed questionnaires is a low response rate (Hoyle et al., 2002; Neuman, 2003; Sekaran, 2003), a number of researchers have suggested various methods to increase mail questionnaire response (e.g., Neuman, 2003; Sekaran, 2003). These include a cover letter, reasonable page length, the researcher's name and contact details, the assurance of confidentiality, a stamped return envelope, and the use of incentives (e.g., offering a small gift to participants for their participation). The current research employed most of these strategies to ensure adequate returns. To ensure confidentiality, the respondents were asked to mail completed questionnaires directly to the researcher by postage-paid, addressed return envelopes. In addition, the information sheet emphasized that if respondents would like to receive a summary of the research findings, they could contact the researcher.

Prior to collecting data, the questionnaire was pretested. The purpose was to discover ambiguous questions. This procedure is particularly beneficial because it allows

researchers to minimize errors due to any unclear wording or improper design (Schwab, 2005; Zikmund, 2003). Initially, the researcher asked other research professionals to screen the questionnaire to look for such things as problems with question wording and bias due to question sequence. The questionnaire, then, was pre-tested on 30 employees from different occupations in Taiwan's service industries, to ensure that questions were clear.

Nonresponse

Nonresponse may cause a problem of bias which is the most significant potential problem in mail survey-based research (Mangione, 1995). Nonresponse bias "in survey research is attributable to the absence of information from respondents that should be included in the calculation of a sample statistic, but is not" (Wilcox, 1977, p.592). Therefore, it may not be justified to generalise the research findings (Mangione, 1995; Viswesvaran, Barrick, & Ones, 1993). As nonresponse bias is a major threat to the external validity of survey research, it is important for an investigation to estimate this error. Particularly in longitudinal studies, the cumulative effects of nonresponse over different data collections can increasingly threaten the representativeness of the remaining sample case (Lepkowski & Couper, 2002). As the time lag between the two collections was six months, there was the possibility of increasing nonresponse bias. In order to assess whether non-response bias was a potential problem in the current research, a chi-square test was conducted (results presented in the next chapter) to assess whether the respondents for both Time 1 and Time 2 differed from non-respondents at Time 2. Chi-

square tests were employed to estimate non-response bias between these two groups of respondents in terms of demographic characteristics.

Measures

Previously established scales (except for frequency of interactions with difficult customers scale) were employed in the questionnaire to measure the constructs of interest because of their well established reliability and validity. In the current research, latent variables comprised of responses to questionnaire items were used to represent the constructs of interest. All of the independent, intervening, and dependent variables were measured by multi-item scales (at least 3 items). To minimize consistency biases, participants were asked to respond to each set of items on different response scales.

As the current study was conducted in a Chinese-speaking context, the questionnaires were translated from English into Chinese (traditional) following back-translation procedures. This back-translation procedure has been used to adapt many English measures into other languages (Mallinckrodt & Wang, 2004), which can improve the validity of research in different languages (Sartorius & Kuyken, 1994; Sekaran, 2003). Firstly, the research designed the survey with scales in English. Secondly, the survey was translated from English to Chinese (traditional) by a bilingual native Taiwanese Chinese speaker. Thirdly, the items were cross-translated back to English by a bilingual native English speaker. Finally, the original and back-translated items were compared and discrepancies between the two versions were resolved through discussion between

translators. This translation procedure was used to ensure semantic and content equivalence in both versions. It should be acknowledged that the School of Management of the University of Tasmania paid these professional translators.

Frequency of Interactions

The frequency of interactions is defined as how often employees interact with customers at work. This construct was measured with three items developed by Gosserand (2003) (see Table 4.1). A cronbach's alpha of .81 in his study demonstrated a moderately good reliability of the scale. In addition, a later study (Diefendorff et al., 2005) used two items from the scale and reported cronbach's alphas of .72.

Using a seven point scale, respondents rated the extent of their agreement with statements about the frequency of interactions with customers, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). One negatively worded item was reversed prior to analysis.

Table 4.1. Frequency of Interactions Scale

1. I interact with many different customers on a daily basis.
2. I do not encounter a large number of interactions with customers during my typical work day. (R)
3. I deal with customers on a frequent basis at work.
Note: Item denoted by (R) is reverse scored.

Duration of Interactions

The duration of interactions is defined as how long employees interact with each customer. The 3-item Duration of Interactions Scale (Table 4.2) developed by Gosserand (2003) was used in this study. He reported a cronbach's alpha of .83 which indicated a moderately good reliability of this scale. In addition, a later study (Diefendorff et al., 2005) using two items from this scale reported cronbach's alphas of .82.

Participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement regarding interacting time on a 7-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 7. One negatively worded question was reversed prior to analysis.

Table 4.2. Duration of Interactions Scale

1. I spend a lot of time with each customer I interact with.
2. Most of my interactions with customers are short.(R)
3. My encounters with customers usually last a while.

Note: Item denoted by (R) is reverse scored.

Frequency of Interactions with Difficult Customers

The frequency of interactions with difficult customers refers to how often employees interact with difficult customers at work. Because there was no existing scale, this latent variable was measured with three items which were generated for the purpose of this study. These three items (Table 4.3) asked respondents to rate their level of agreement with statements about the aspect of frequency of interactions with difficult customers. Participants responded to these three items using a scale ranging from "strongly disagree" = 1 to "strongly agree" = 7. One negative item of the scale was reversed before analysis.

Table 4.3. Frequency of Interactions with Difficult Customers Scale

-
1. I deal with many difficult customers at work.
 2. I interact with many complaining customers in my job.
 3. I do not interact with many difficult customers in my work. (R)
-

Note: Item denoted by (R) is reverse scored.

Affectivity

Positive affectivity and negative affectivity was measured with the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegan, 1988), which has a list of ten positive mood words (e.g., 'excited') and ten negative mood words (e.g., 'irritable'). Researchers have indicated that PANAS is a commonly used measure (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000). Previous studies have also shown good internal consistency for the PA and NA scale and confirmed the independent two-factor dimension of PA and NA for the total 20-item scale. For example, the reported Cronbach's alphas were .91, .90 and .89 for PA and .83, .88 and .87 for NA, respectively (Melvin & Molloy, 2000; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Huebner and Dew (1995) and Crocker (1997) reported an inter-scale correlation between PA and NA of $r = -.14$ and $r = -.11$, respectively.

The 10 positive emotional states and 10 negative ones (Table 4.4) were rated on 5-point Likert scales ranging from "never" = 1 to "always" = 5 to indicate the extent to which they had generally experienced each emotional state. For PA, a higher PA score indicates a greater tendency to experience a positive mood. For NA, a higher NA score means a greater tendency to experience a negative mood.

Table 4.4. Affectivity Scale

<i>Positive Affectivity</i>	<i>Negative Affectivity</i>
1. Interested	1. Afraid
2. Excited	2. Scared
3. Enthusiastic	3. Irritable
4. Strong	4. Ashamed
5. Attentive	5. Nervous
6. Active	6. Distressed
7. Determined	7. Upset
8. Proud	8. Guilty
9. Inspired	9. Hostile
10. Alert	10. Jittery

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support was measured with a shortened version of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) (Eisenberger et al., 1997). This version of the SPOS contains 8 of the original 36 items (Table 4.5), which had been found to load highly on the main POS factor. This version has been applied to a wide variety of organizations with cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .89 to .90 (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999). Furthermore, research has shown that

this eight-item organizational support scale is unidimensional and distinct from measures of affective commitment (Hutchison, 1997; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001), perceived supervisor support, organizational dependability (Hutchison, 1997), procedural justice (Rhoades et al., 2001), and job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 1997).

The 8-item scale assesses respondents’ perceptions of the extent to which the organization values their contributions and is concerned about their well-being. Respondents indicated their degree of agreement to these items on six-point scales ranging from “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (6). A higher score indicates a greater POS. Two negatively worded items of the scale were reversed prior to analysis.

Table 4.5. Perceived Organizational Support Scale

1. My organization really cares about my well-being.
2. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.
3. My organization shows very little concern for me. (R)
4. My organization cares about my opinions.
5. My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favour.
6. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.
7. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.
8. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me. (R)

Note: Items denoted by (R) are reverse scored

Job Autonomy

Job autonomy was measured using the three-item job autonomy subscale (Table 4.6) of the 21-item Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). This subscale measures the degree to which an employee has freedom, independence, and discretion in

performing job tasks (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). This measurement has been widely used (Abraham, 1998; Morgeson, Delaney-Klinger, & Hemingway, 2005; Morris & Feldman, 1997; Spreitzer, 1995) with acceptable reliability demonstrated by Abraham (1998) and Morgeson et al. (2005) with Cronbach’s alphas of .74 and .78, respectively. Responses were reported on a six-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A higher score indicates that employees perceive greater job autonomy.

Table 4.6. Job Autonomy Scale

1. I have a considerable autonomy to decide on my own how to do my job.
2. This job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
3. This job denies me much chance to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out work. (R)

Note: Item denoted by (R) is reverse scored

Emotional Labour Strategies: Surface Acting and Deep Acting

Emotional labour was measured using seven surface acting items and four deep acting items (Table 4.7) (Diefendorff et al., 2005). Research has demonstrated good internal consistency for the surface acting and deep acting scales. The reported Cronbach’s alphas were .91 and .89 for surface acting and .82 and .85 for deep acting, respectively (Diefendorff et al., 2005; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). Participants rated the frequency of surface acting and deep acting on a 5-point scale ranging from “never” = 1 to “always” = 5.

Table 4.7. Emotional Labour Scale

<i>Surface acting</i>
1. I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way.
2. I fake a good mood when interacting with customers.
3. I put on a “show” or “performance” when interacting with customers.
4. I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.
5. I put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job.
6. I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside.
7. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.
<i>Deep acting</i>
1. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to customers.
2. I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others.
3. I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers.
4. I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to customers.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion was measured using Maslach and Jackson’s (1981) nine-item emotional exhaustion subscale (Table 4.8) of the 22-item Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI). A high degree of burnout is reflected in high scores on the emotional exhaustion subscale. Previous studies have provided evidence of the construct validity of the emotional exhaustion subscale. Emotional exhaustion has found to be related to

various job attitudes and behaviours (e.g., counterproductive work behaviour and voluntary turnover) (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). In addition, research has evidenced the internal consistency of the emotional exhaustion subscale (e.g., Abraham, 1998; Cropanzano et al., 2003). The reported Cronbach’s alphas were .91, .92 and .90 in successive studies (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Cropanzano et al., 2003; Grandey, 2003). Respondents rated emotional exhaustion on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Table 4.8. Emotional Exhaustion Scale

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel used up at the end of the workday.
3. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
4. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.
5. I feel burned out from my work.
6. I feel frustrated by my job.
7. I feel I’m working too hard on my job.
8. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.
9. I feel like I’m at the end of my rope.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to one’s general emotional response toward his or her job, and represents the degree to which a person likes his or her job. This study examines how performing emotional labour affects one’s overall job satisfaction rather than measuring their satisfaction with different aspects of their jobs. In this study, overall job satisfaction was measured using a three-item global satisfaction scale (Table 4.9) derived from the

Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire Job Satisfaction Subscale (see Spector, 1997). Three items ask for respondents’ attitudes towards their jobs, specifically, how satisfied they are.

Previous research has evidenced the internal consistency of this scale. For example, Grandey (2003) reported an internal consistency reliability of .89. Likewise, Grandey et al. (2005b) also reported good internal consistency ($\alpha = .88$ for U.S. employees and $\alpha = .81$ for French employees). Individual items are rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” = 1 to “strongly agree” = 7. One negatively worded item was reversed prior to analysis. A higher score indicates a greater satisfaction level.

Table 4.9. Job Satisfaction Scale

1. All in all I am satisfied with my job.
2. In general, I don’t like my job. (R)
3. In general, I like working here.
Note: Items denoted by (R) are reverse scored

Demographic Variables

Demographic characteristics of each participant were collected with respect to age, gender, occupation, and tenure. These demographic characteristics were ascertained for each respondent by direct and straightforward questions included on the questionnaire.

Statistical Analysis

The current research employed Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to test the proposed models and hypotheses. This technique used relies on null hypothesis testing in which a statistical significance criterion is applied. The following discussion of SEM is particularly extensive due to the complexity of many of the relevant issues.

SEM is a multivariate technique that has been widely used in many scientific fields of study as it allows the researcher to test the utility of a complex theory on empirical data. SEM techniques are becoming the preferred analytical method for confirming theoretical models in quantitative research (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). One major characteristic of SEM is that it explicitly takes into account the issues of measurement error in the observed variables when statistically analysing data (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Thus, more accurate structural estimates are made which in turn increases the power of all analyses. SEM also can be used for global hypothesis testing (both direct and indirect effects of various variables) by comparing a predicted covariance matrix (an *a priori* model) to a covariance matrix observed in a data sample (Hoyle, 1995).

SEM can include both measurement models and structural models. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used to test the adequacy of the measurement models prior to testing the structural model. The measurement models address the reliability and validity of the indicators corresponding to the latent variables (factors or theoretical constructs). That is, the items used to measure each of the constructs are used as indicators of latent variables. The structural model specifies the direct and indirect relations among the variables (including both observed and latent variables) using diagrams and arrows implying statistical prediction. This involves a simultaneous regression of each of the

endogenous variables in the model on their predicted antecedents. The adequacy of the measurement and structure model is assessed using various “model fit” statistics calculated from comparing the proposed model with sample data. A variety of model fit indices will be further discussed later in this section.

The present research utilized LISREL 8.8-SIMPLIS (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2004) to test the measurement models and structural models. All procedures used a maximum-likelihood (ML) estimation method. ML has been the most widely used estimation method in SEM (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998; Hoyle, 1995; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It is scale-free (i.e., changes in variable scale yield similar estimates) (Tan, 2001) and performs reasonably well even under conditions such as small sample size and excessive kurtosis (Hoyle & Panter, 1995). This estimation method assumes multivariate normal distribution of the observed variables, but recent research has shown that this method can be used for data with minor deviations from normality (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000). The issue of multivariate normality and other assumptions required for the SEM, such as linearity and absence of multicollinearity, will be examined in the next chapter. As noted by Brannick (1995), many researchers have violated the basic assumptions for using SEM, resulting in the inappropriate application of the technique. Therefore, the following is a brief overview of some major issues important in application of the SEM and CFA techniques.

Sample Size

Sample size has always been a major concern in the application of structural equation modelling (SEM). Generally, large sample sizes are needed in SEM to ensure

the accuracy of estimates and representativeness. The critical question, however, is how large a sample is needed in SEM (Hair et al., 1998). Many researchers have proposed different views regarding appropriate minimum sample sizes in SEM (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Bentler & Chou, 1987; Boomsma, 1982; Ding, Velicer, & Harlow, 1995; Hair et al., 1998; Hu, Bentler, & Kano, 1992; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). For example, researchers have argued that a generally accepted minimum satisfactory sample size is 150 when constructing structural equation models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Ding et al., 1995). Hair et al. (1998) recommended a minimal sample size of 200, while Boomsma (1982, 1983) recommended 400.

Power analysis can provide a method for determining the minimum sample size necessary to achieve a given level of power for testing hypotheses about model fit (MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). Power analysis will be conducted in the next chapter in order to ensure that the obtained sample size in the current study has adequate power for detecting when a null hypothesis is false.

Model Specification

Model specification refers to the idea that the measurement constructs are operationalised by multi-item scales with known psychometric properties and structural models should be built on the basis of an extensive review of the literature or on the basis of a theory. Unlike other data analysis techniques, such as exploratory factor analyses and multiple regressions, SEM is not well suited to the initial development of measures and theoretical models. For sound application of the SEM technique, information about

measurement properties of the variables of interest and the structural relations among them is necessary (Brannick, 1995).

An extensive review of the literature should provide information about factor structures and structural relations among constructs of interest, enabling the researcher to propose an *a priori* model. The proposed model of emotional labour in the current research was specified based on the theoretical structure of Demerouti et al.'s (2001) Job Demands-Resources Model and emotional labour literature (e.g., Grandey, 2000). The literature review also identified potential alternative paths among the variables to be tested. The measurement model was specified according to existing factor structures for measures used in previous research.

Two-stage Procedure

The present study adopted the two-step modelling approach which was advocated by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), and also recommended by McDonald and Ho (2002). The first stage involves fitting and adjusting a measurement model to the data, and then testing the structural relations among the constructs. That is, researchers have to confirm the reliability and validity of the measurement model prior to testing the structural equation model. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) argued for their approach by stating that the measurement model provided an assessment of convergent and discriminant validity and the structural model provided an assessment of predictive validity.

Model Fit

There are many model fit indices which measure how well the models fit the sample data. These indices can be classified into three categories: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures (Hair et al., 1998). Absolute fit measures assess how well the hypothesized model fits the sample data compared to a perfectly fitting model. Some examples of these indices include the chi-square (χ^2) test, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the standardized root mean squared residual (SRMR), and the root mean square of approximation (RMSEA). Incremental fit measures assess the improvement in fit of the hypothesized model over the null model, which assumes that all observed variables in the model are uncorrelated. Some examples of these indices include the normed fit index (NFI), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), and the comparative fit index (CFI). Parsimonious fit measures adjust fit measures to provide a comparison between models. Some examples of this type of fit index are the parsimonious normed fit index (PNFI) and the Akaike information criterion (AIC).

Although there is little agreement on which fit indices provide the best assessment of fit of the model, researchers do suggest and encourage the use of multiple indices instead of relying on a single index (Bollen, 1989; Hair et al., 1998; Hu & Bentler, 1995; Jöreskog, 1993; Marsh, Balla, & McDonald, 1988; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The chi-square statistic is the most fundamental measure of overall fit (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996; Hair et al., 1998). McDonald and Ho (2002), in their study surveying 41 articles using SEM from 1995 to 1997, indicated that all 41 studies report the chi-square and degrees of freedom for the measurement and structural models. However, researchers should not only rely on the χ^2 but must report multiple fit indices (Bollen & Long, 1993).

Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) stated that the issue of which fit indices to report is a matter of personal preference or the preference of the journal editor. The CFI and RMSEA, however, are the most frequently reported fit indices (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Hu and Bentler (1998) recommended the use of the SRMR and one of several other indices such as NNFI and RMSEA. Furthermore, Kline (2005) suggested that the χ^2 , the RMSEA, the SRMR, and the CFI are the minimal set of fit indices to be reported. The current study used multiple fit indices in evaluating the fit of the proposed measurement and structural models to the sample data. The following is a brief discussion of the χ^2 , the RMSEA, the SRMR, the NNFI, and the CFI indices adopted in the reporting of this research.

The χ^2 test is used for hypothesis testing to determine whether the null hypothesis should be rejected or not. A non-significant χ^2 implies that there is no significant discrepancy between the covariance matrix implied by the model and the population covariance matrix. Therefore, this indicates a good fit between the data and model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The χ^2 test is the most widely used index for assessing the adequacy of structural equation models. However, several problems associated with this statistic (e.g., sensitivity to sample size) have been recognized by researchers (e.g., Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000; Hoyle, 1995; Kline, 2005). For example, the χ^2 value becomes inflated with increases in the number of degrees of freedom (model complexity) and sample size. With a large sample, a trivial difference between the estimated model and data may result in the rejection of the proposed model (Hoyle, 1995; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The RMSEA compares the differences between a model and a perfect (saturated) model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). When the RMSEA approaches 0, it indicates a better fit of the model to the data. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that RMSEA values at .06 or less indicate a good-fitting model. Browne and Cudeck (1993) asserted that values at .05 or less indicate a good fit, values between .05 and .08 correspond to an acceptable fit, and values larger than .10 indicate a poor-fitting model.

The SRMR is based on the analysis of residuals and is the average of discrepancies between the sample variances and covariances and the estimated population variances and covariances (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Similar to RMSEA, small SRMR values indicate a good fit to the data. The SRMR has a range of 0 to 1, and values of .08 or less indicate a good fitting model (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The NNFI takes into account degrees of freedom in both baseline and hypothetical models (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The NNFI provides an adequate fit index at all sample sizes and generally ranges between 0 and 1, where 1 indicates perfect fit and the recommended cut-off value for a good model fit is .90 and higher (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

The CFI assesses the relative improvement in fit of the theoretical model compared to other models by employing the noncentral χ^2 distribution with noncentrality parameters (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Bentler (1995) argued that the CFI does a good job of estimating model fit even in small samples. CFI values (ranging from 0 to 1) greater than .95 indicate a good-fitting model (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

In order to minimize Type I and Type II error rates, Hu and Bentler (1999) recommended a rule for assessing model fit. They proposed that a model should be

rejected when the NNFI or CFI is less than .96, SRMR is greater than .09, and RMSEA is greater than .06. The current study adopted Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria for a good-fitting model.

Assessment of Model Fit

After achieving a well fitting measurement model, it is also important to carefully scrutinize the quality of construct measurement by looking at the significance of estimated factor loadings and the magnitude of measurement error (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996). That is, to examine how well the constructs are measured by their indicators. This can be determined by examining the reliability of either the individual item (squared multiple correlations), or of all measures of a given construct (composite reliability and average variance extracted). The squared multiple correlation (R^2) serves as the reliability of the indicator and as the proportion of variance in the measured variable that is accounted for by the factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Values of R^2 less than .5 are not desirable because it means that more than half of an indicator's variance is unexplained by the factor which it is proposed to measure. In addition to examining the reliability for each indicator, the composite reliability and average variance extracted for each construct was calculated by the formula provided by Hair et al. (1998). These formulas are as follows where the measurement error for each indicator is ϵ_j .

$$\text{Compositereliability} = \frac{(\sum \text{standardized loading})^2}{(\sum \text{standardized loading})^2 + \sum \varepsilon_j}$$

$$\text{Averaged variance extracted} = \frac{\sum (\text{standardized loading}^2)}{\sum (\text{standardized loading})^2 + \sum \varepsilon_j}$$

Composite reliability is a measure of the internal consistency of the construct indicators for which acceptable value for reliability is .70, whereas variance extracted reflects the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct for which suggested value of the variance extracted should exceed .50 (Hair et al., 1998).

Convergent validity and discriminant validity is another issue needing to be addressed in judging the adequacy of a measurement model. Convergent validity means that multiple indicators of the same construct should hang together. Conversely, discriminant validity means that measures of the one construct hang together, but also diverge with opposing constructs (Neuman, 2003). The convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement model will be discussed in the next chapter.

Model Re-specification

The purpose of modifying a SEM model is to improve the fit of the measurement and structural model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). It has become common practice to examine the modification indices available in SEM programs such as LISREL, EQS, and AMOS. Modification indices (a term used in the LISREL program) represent the

reduction in chi-square that would be expected for the model to be re-estimated if a single fixed parameter in the model was set to free (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989). It is important to note that researchers should never make model changes based solely on modification indices (Hair et al., 1998). Therefore, model re-specification is made only if a theoretical rationale could justify the modification.

As it is often difficult to obtain adequate fit for measurement models with large numbers of indicators (Baumgartner & Homburg, 1996), improvements could be achieved by a number of criteria (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kline, 2005; Segars, 1997). These involve deleting items with low reliabilities, relating indicators to multiple factors, or allowing correlated measurement errors. Improvements in model fit may be gained by deleting problem indicators or re-specifying the model to allow indicators to load on more than one factor (Kline, 2005).

Deleting problem indicators is the preferred solution for improving the fit of measurement models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Segars, 1997). Although Kline (2005) indicated that some researchers allow indicators to load on more than one factor (multidimensional measurement), a lack of dimensionality within measurement models can seriously confound the estimates of paths between constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Therefore, the current research applied the conservative principle of unidimensional measurement and did not make any re-specifications that allowed indicators to load on multiple factors, and indicators with multiple factor loadings were deleted.

It is important to note that a sufficient number of indicators per factor have to be available for a model to be identified and for estimating proper solutions (Baumgartner &

Homburg, 1996). A rule of thumb for a model to be identified is that a CFA model with a single factor needs a minimum of three indicators and a model with two or more factors requires at least two indicators per factor (Kline, 2005). In addition, as deleting problem indicators may pose a threat to the content validity of the factor, the current research tried to balance the trade-off between increased model fit and reduced reliability and content validity of constructs when indicators are deleted. That is, the models reported in the current research did use modification indices in order to delete problem indicators; however, some items were considered important to retain in terms of the content validity of the factors representing the constructs of interest.

With regard to the structural model, the modification indices indicate how much the model could be improved by adding in unspecified paths. As stated earlier, it is critical that any modification must have substantive theoretical justification before a respecified model can be tested. Kline (2005) pointed out that if the inclusion of a path is only based on statistical significance, and not theoretically predicted, its inclusion might increase the probability of Type I errors. To address the preceding concerns, the present research did not add non-specified paths to models. As discussed in chapter 3, the current research specified the alternative model to compare with the hypothesized model. The chi-square difference test, one commonly used technique for comparing models (Kelloway, 1995), was used to test whether there was a significant difference between these models. The difference between any two models in a nested series can be tested by subtracting the two chi-square values and comparing this value to the critical value associated with difference in degrees of freedom (Bentler & Bonett, 1980).

Causality

Laboratory studies using experimental designs are the methodology of choice for examining causal relationships. Although it is possible to support inferences of causality among variables if the relationships are based on theoretical rationale (Hair et al., 1998) or if models are properly identified (Judge & Watanabe, 1993), it is important to note that like other statistical techniques, SEM does not establish proof of causality. For example, Brannick (1995) stated that “neither the test of global model fit nor the fact that the parameters were estimated by maximum likelihood allows one to infer that the independent variables caused the dependent variable” (p.203).

The causal inference requires much more than just acceptable correspondence between the model and the data. In addition, three things are needed to establish causality: temporal order, sufficient association between two variables, and the elimination of plausible alternatives (Neuman, 2003). Although the current research used longitudinal data to examine the relationship of job demands, resources, and emotional labour strategies with emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction, it should be noted that this does not rule out the possibility that some omitted third factor is responsible for the association between variables. Therefore, the elimination of alternative explanations for relations among the variables is necessary.

Chapter Summary

This chapter addressed all major aspects of the research design, target population, sampling plan, data collection procedures, instruments, and statistical methods that were employed to analyse the data. The samples were from a variety of “people work”

occupations in Taiwan's service industry. The self-report data were collected at two different points in time, separated by 6 months. Previously established scales were utilized to measure the study's constructs. As the current research was conducted in a Chinese-speaking context, the questionnaires were translated from English into Chinese (traditional), following the back-translation procedures to ensure translation equivalence in both versions. Finally, the procedures used in analysing the data and the important issues in the interpretation of results for structural equation modelling were also discussed. The following chapter will discuss the results of the data analysis undertaken to address the hypotheses developed in chapter 3.

CHAPTER FIVE

Data Analysis and Results

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of data analysis and hypothesis testing. The chapter firstly presents a profile of the respondents, the findings of non-response bias assessment, and data screening procedures. Following that, the results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the overall measurement model are presented. The examination of common method variance, as well as the validity and reliability of instruments are also provided in this section. Statistical power for the test of model fit and the results of the structural model relating to the hypothesis testing are then addressed.

Characteristics of the Sample

A total of 850 questionnaires were distributed at Time 1 and 554 were returned. At Time 2, approximately 6 months later, 636 questionnaires were distributed and 285 questionnaires were returned. The response rates for the first and second wave of data collection were 65.2% and 44.8%, respectively. A tracking code was used so as to allow the responses at Time 1 to be matched against those at Time 2. The first wave of data and the second wave of data matched 199 useable surveys, representing a 31.3% response rate. The respondents consisted of 68.3% women and 31.7% men. Eight point five percent of participants were aged under 25 years, 68.8% were aged 25 to 39 years, and 22.7% were aged 40 and over. Most of the participants (45.2%) had been working at their current position for less than 4 years, 31.7% of participants had been working at their position for

a period of 4 up to less than 10 years, and 23.1% had held their current position for over 10 years. In addition, the sample was drawn from a variety of industries and occupations. The types of industries included in the sample were finance (47.2%), hospitality (17.6%), health care (18.6%), and retail (16.6%). Occupations (job titles) were grouped into five broad categories using the Hochschild's (1983) occupation classification. These occupations were professional and technical workers (7%), managers (16.1%), sales workers (13.6%), clerical workers (57.8%), and service workers (5.5%).

Non-response Bias

In order to assess possible non-response bias, the participants who responded to both the Time 1 and Time 2 (N = 199) surveys were compared with those who completed the Time 1 survey but did not respond to the Time 2 survey (N = 355). This analysis was intended to indicate whether the respondents differed from non-respondents at Time 2. Chi-square tests were employed to assess non-response bias between these two groups of respondents in terms of demographic characteristics. The result of chi-square tests showed no significant differences between the two groups on any of the demographic variables (see Table 5.1). Thus, non-response bias should not be a major concern in the current study.

Table 5.1. Results of Chi-square Tests

Demographic variables	Likelihood ratio	df	p-value
Gender	.054	1	.82
Age	2.719	5	.74
Type of industry	6.648	4	.16
Current position	8.242	6	.22
Years in current position	4.679	4	.32

Data Screening

Data screening procedures were conducted to examine the accuracy of the data file prior to model estimation and testing. Data were inspected for missing values. Missing values analysis revealed that the missing values for variables ranged from .02% to .14%. This met Tabachnick and Fidell’s (2001) recommendation that no variables had missing data in excess of 5%. As noted, structural equation modelling, like other multivariate statistic analyses, are unable to deal with any missing data and are considered more robust with larger sample sizes. In dealing with missing data, mean substitution which is the most common way to estimate missing value (Schwab, 2005) was adopted in the current study to estimate missing values for continuous variables in order to retain as many participants as possible.

All data were also screened for compatibility with the assumptions required for SEM. These assumptions are univariate and multivariate normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. To assess the normality of distribution, the current research used skewness and kurtosis statistics. Variables with absolute values of skew greater than 3 are deemed to be “extremely” skewed, while

absolute values of kurtosis index greater than 10 are problematic and values greater than 20 may be described as “extreme” kurtosis (Kline, 2005). An examination of skewness and kurtosis of variables revealed that values of skewness were between -1.084 and 1.178, and values of kurtosis were between -1.139 and 2.125. This means that univariate normality was not violated. Furthermore, Mardia’s (1970) PK statistic was calculated from PRELIS, the companion software for LISREL, to test the multivariate normality of the data. This statistic, based on functions of skewness and kurtosis, should be less than 3.00 in order to meet the assumption of multivariate normality (Siekpe, 2005). In the current research, Mardia’s statistic (PK) was 1.052, which indicated multivariate normality was not violated. Thus, data could be analysed by the maximum likelihood method.

Linearity and homoscedasticity among pairs of variables was assessed by inspection of bivariate scatterplots. The results of scatterplots were generally oval-shaped, indicating that the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were not violated in the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). In addition, the examination of scatterplots of standardised residuals and standardised predicted values showed that these assumptions were tenable for all analyses.

Finally, the assumption of an absence of multicollinearity was checked. The consequence of multicollinearity in SEM is a singular covariance matrix which would result in certain mathematical operations being impossible (Kline, 2005). To identify the presence of multicollinearity, the correlation matrix for the independent variables was firstly inspected. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) suggested that the problem of multicollinearity is evident when bivariate correlations are greater than .70. Pearson

correlation analyses were conducted and the results showed that no correlations were higher than .70. In addition, multicollinearity was assessed through examination of the tolerance value and variance inflation factor (VIF). Tolerance is “the amount of variability of the selected independent variable not explained by the other independent variables” (Hair et al., 1998). VIF is the inverse of tolerance ($VIF = 1/\text{tolerance}$) and is an “indicator of the effect that the other independent variables have on the standard error of a regression coefficient” (Hair et al., 1998, p.148). A common minimum cutoff threshold is a tolerance value of .10, which corresponds to a VIF value greater than 10 (Hair et al., 1998). The results showed that the tolerances of the independent variables ranged from .249 to .622, which were higher than the cut-off threshold of .10. In addition, the VIF values were not greater than 4.016, which were below the cut-off threshold of 10. Therefore, the tolerance and the VIF tests suggested that there was an absence of multicollinearity among the independent variables. In sum, the results showed that data met the assumption of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. This indicated that it was appropriate to conduct further analyses using CFA and SEM.

Prior to estimating the model using CFA and SEM, the responses to the questionnaire were also analysed in a series of one-way ANOVAs, with demographic variables as the independent variables. The analyses tested whether there were significant differences between employees with different age, gender, job tenure, industries, and occupations on performing emotional labour. Ten one-way ANOVAs were run to assess separately the effects of these demographic variables on emotional labour (surface acting and deep acting). No significant differences were observed for any of the variables.

The Measurement Model

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to test the accuracy of the measurement model with respect to the data examined; that is, to specify the relationships of the observed variables to the latent variables. The items used to measure each of the eleven constructs were used as indicators of latent variables. As mentioned in chapter 4, this study utilized such fit indices as Chi-square, RMSEA, CFI, NNFI, and SRMR to assess how well the model fits the data. If the measurement model fails to achieve a good fit, further model re-specification would be employed to improve model fit. As discussed in chapter 4, there are several criteria upon which to base the decision to delete an indicator. However, it should be noted that an indicator's contribution to the content validity of each of the latent variables was taken into account. In addition, factor variances were set to one in order to identify the model during the estimation process.

Before testing the overall measurement model, the measurement of each construct was re-specified individually in order to delete problem indicators. A construct with only three items was not tested for model fit at this stage because, as stated in chapter 4, a CFA model with a single factor requires at least three indicators for the model to be identified (Kline, 2005).

CFA for Positive Affectivity

The measurement model of positive affectivity (PA) comprised ten indicators. In confirmatory factor analysis, the results of the initial estimation of PA did not produce a satisfactory result. Although one fit index (SMRM = .06) met Hu and Bentler's (1999) criterion of good model fit, other indices ($\chi^2(35) = 80.99, p < .001$, RMSEA = .08, NNFI

= .94, CFI = .95) did not show a good fit between the sample data and the model. In order to improve model fit, one indicator (proud) was deleted due to low standardized loadings ($< .5$). In addition, according to the modification indices, two indicators (excited and strong) were deleted due to highly correlated residuals. The retained items for PA were interested, enthusiastic, attentive, active, inspired, determined, and alert. The results of confirmatory factor analysis for PA with these seven indicators showed a very good fit between the model and the data. The chi-square value of 20.62 with 14 degrees of freedom was not significant. In addition, other fit indices (RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .04, NNFI = .98, CFI = .99) met Hu and Bentler's (1999) criterion of good model fit.

CFA for Negative Affectivity

The results of the initial estimation of negative affectivity (NA) with ten indicators failed to meet Hu and Bentler's (1999) criterion of good model fit (RMSEA = .11, NNFI = .91, CFI = .93) and the chi-square value of 112.38 with 35 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .001$. Based on the recommendation of modification indices, this model could achieve a better fit by dropping four indicators (nervous, jittery, upset, and guilty) whose error variances were highly correlated. After these indicators were deleted, the chi-square value decreased to 16.72 (non significant) which indicated a good fit between the model and the data. Other fit indices (RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .04, CFI = .98, NNFI = .97) also met Hu and Bentler's (1999) criterion of good model fit. The retained indicators for NA were ashamed, afraid, scared, irritable, distressed, and hostile.

CFA for Perceived Organizational Support

Initially, the measurement model of perceived organizational support (POS) had eight items. The chi-square value of 82.83 with 20 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .001$. This indicated a poor fit between the sample data and the model. Two fit indices (RMSEA = .13 and NNFI = .94) also failed to meet Hu and Bentler's (1999) criterion of good model fit. According to the modification indices, this model would achieve a better fit by dropping four indicators with highly correlated residuals. These were (1) "My organization really cares about my well-being."; (2) "My organization strongly considers my goals and values."; (3) "My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part."; and (4) "If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me." The results of the CFA for POS with the four remaining indicators showed a very good fit between the model and the data. The chi-square value of 5.08 with 2 degrees of freedom was not significant. Other fit indices all showed a good fit between the model and the data (NNFI = .98, CFI = .99, SRMR = .02). It should be noted that one index (RMSEA = .088) did not meet Hu and Bentler's (1999) criterion of good model fit. However, after considering the remaining indicator's contribution to the content validity of the POS construct, no further model re-specification was made.

CFA for Surface Acting

The measurement model for surface acting had seven indicators. In confirmatory factor analysis, although two indices (SMRM = .045 and CFI = .97) met Hu and Bentler's (1999) criterion of good model fit, other indices ($\chi^2(14) = 44.03$, $p < .001$, NNFI = .95, RMSEA = .10) did not show a good fit between the sample data and the model. In order

to improve model fit, one indicator (I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way) was deleted due to low standardized loadings ($< .5$). In addition, according to the modification indices, one indicator (I fake a good mood when interacting with customers) was deleted due to highly correlated residuals. The final CFA for surface acting had five indicators, with a nonsignificant chi-square value of 9.34 with 5 degrees of freedom. This nonsignificant chi-square value and other fit indices (RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .03, CFI = .99, NNF = .98) all support a good fit between the model and the data.

CFA for Deep Acting

Initially, the measurement model of deep acting had four items. The chi-square value of 5.94 with 2 degrees of freedom was nonsignificant. This indicated a good fit between the sample data and the model. However, two fit indices (RMSEA = .10 and NNFI = .95) failed to meet Hu and Bentler's (1999) criterion of good model fit. In order to improve model fit, one indicator (I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to customers) was deleted due to low standardized loadings ($< .5$). As only three indicators were left, the measurement model for surface acting was considered saturated.

CFA for Emotional Exhaustion

The results of the initial estimation of emotional exhaustion with nine indicators did not produce a satisfactory result. The chi-square value of 156.64 with 27 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .001$ and two other fit indices (RMESA = .15 and NNFI = .94) failed to meet Hu and Bentler's (1999) criterion of good model fit. Based on the recommendation of modification indices, this model could achieve a better fit by

dropping four items with error variances that were highly correlated. These items were (1) “I feel emotionally drained from my work.”; (2) “Working with people all day is really a strain for me.”; (3) “I feel like I’m at the end of my rope.”; and (4) “I feel used up at the end of the workday.” After these indicators were deleted, the results of the CFA for emotional exhaustion with the five remaining indicators showed a very good fit between the model and the data ($\chi^2(5) = 2.12$, ns, RMSEA = 0, SRMR = .01, NNF = 1, CFI = 1).

Overall Measurement Model

The proposed measurement model postulates *a priori* that the measurement model is an eleven-factor structure composed of: (1) frequency of interactions, (2) duration of interactions, (3) frequency of interactions with difficult customers, (4) positive affectivity, (5) negative affectivity, (6) perceived organizational support, (7) job autonomy, (8) surface acting, (9) deep acting, (10) emotional exhaustion, and (11) job satisfaction. The confirmatory factor analyses retained a total number of 45 observed variables for these eleven factors in the overall measurement model.

The results of the initial estimation of the full measurement model indicated that the model was good fit to the data (RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .07, NNFI = .96, CFI = .97), although the chi-square value of 1252.56 with 890 degrees of freedom was significant at $p < .001$. As stated in chapter 4, it is extremely rare to find a non-significant chi-square when working with a complex model and a large sample. Inspection of the modification indices revealed that the model could be improved by dropping some of the items which showed evidence of multiple factor loadings or large correlated residuals. As the unidimensionality of each construct is crucial in theory development and testing

(Anderson & Gerbing, 1988), indicators with large correlated residuals and/or high cross-loadings on other factors were deleted.

As a result, eleven indicators were removed from the model and the CFA was re-run. However, each construct still retained two to five indicators. A construct with a minimum of two indicators meets the criterion for a CFA model to be identified (Kline, 2005). Although the chi-square value ($\chi^2(472) = 640.32, p < .001$) was still significant, other model fit indices of the modified measurement model showed a very good fit between the model and the data (RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .05, NNFI = .97, CFI = .97). As the chi-square test is very sensitive to the sample size, most researchers suggest examining other fit indices to determine the model fit. This modified model also met Hu and Bentler's (1999) stringent decision rule stating that good fit is present when NNFI and CFI are greater than .96, RMSEA is less than .06 and the SRMR is less than .09. The remaining thirty-four indicators and their factor loadings are listed in Table 5.2. The factor loadings provide information about the extent to which a given observed variable is able to measure the latent variable, which serves as a validity coefficient (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). The magnitudes of the standardized loadings ranged from .52 to .92, and were all statistically significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Table 5.2. Measurement Scale Properties

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings *	R ²	Construct/ Indicator Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Positive Affectivity			.75	.44
Enthusiastic	.77	.59		
Attentive	.55	.30		
Active	.77	.59		
Alert	.52	.27		
Negative Affectivity			.75	.43
Afraid	.73	.54		
Scared	.68	.46		
Irritable	.57	.32		
Distressed	.64	.41		
Frequency of Interactions			.76	.51
I interact with many different customers on a daily basis.	.74	.54		
I do not encounter a large number of interactions with customers during my typical work day.	.73	.54		
I deal with customers on a frequent basis at work.	.67	.45		
Duration of Interactions			.78	.64
I spend a lot of time with each customer I interact with.	.83	.68		
Most of interactions with customers are short.	.77	.60		
Frequency of Interactions with Difficult Customers			.75	.60
I do not interact with many difficult customers in my work	.88	.77		
I interact with many complaining customers in my job.	.83	.69		

Table 5.2. Continued

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings *	R ²	Construct/ Indicator Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Perceived Organizational Support			.87	.69
My organization cares about my opinions.	.80	.64		
My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favour.	.86	.75		
Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.	.82	.68		
Job Autonomy			.79	.65
This job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	.81	.66		
I have a considerable autonomy to decide on my own how to do my job.	.80	.64		
Surface Acting			.84	.53
I put on a “show” or “performance” when interacting with customers.	.72	.52		
I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.	.67	.46		
I put on a “mask” in order to display the emotions I need for the job.	.82	.68		
I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside.	.63	.40		
I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.	.77	.60		

Table 5.2. Continued

Construct and Indicators	Completely Standardized Loadings *	R ²	Construct/ Indicator Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Deep Acting			.79	.56
I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others.	.70	.49		
I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers.	.77	.59		
I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to customers.	.77	.60		
Emotional exhaustion			.91	.76
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	.84	.70		
I feel frustrated by my job.	.89	.79		
I feel burned out from my work.	.89	.80		
Job Satisfaction			.91	.77
In general, I don't like my job.	.92	.84		
Generally speaking, I like working here.	.87	.77		
In general, I am not satisfied with my job.	.84	.71		

Table 5.2 also shows R^2 , construct reliability and average variance extracted.

All constructs had acceptable reliability scores ranging from .75 to .91, which exceeds the recommended .70 (Hair et al., 1998). Two values of average variance extracted fell below the recommended .50, which will be discussed later in the subject of convergent validity. These constructs were positive affectivity and negative affectivity. Other values of average variance extracted exceeded the recommended .50 (range from .51 to .77). It is also important to note that the measurement scale properties of some of the items were not satisfactory. The amount of explained variance (R^2) in 9 of the 34 indicators of the latent constructs was less than .5, suggesting that more than half of an indicator's variance is unexplained by the construct it is supposed to measure (Kline, 2005). As noted previously, an indicator's contribution to the content validity of each of the latent variable was taken into account. Therefore, an indicator (I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside) of surface acting was kept because of its contribution to the content validity of surface acting factor.

This study also examined construct validity in terms of convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity for a measurement model can be ensured if all observable indicator loadings were significantly related to their respective latent factors (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). As shown on Table 5.2, standardized factor loadings for the indicator variables ranged from .52 to .92 and all factor loadings were significant at .05. This finding provides evidence supporting the convergent validity for the constructs. In addition, Fornell and Larcker (1981) argued that "on the basis of construct reliability, researcher may conclude that the convergent validity of the construct is adequate, even though more than 50% of the variance is due to error" (p.46). In this case, even though

the average variance extracted for positive affectivity and negative affectivity was .44 and .43, respectively, the construct reliability indicators of these two variables were both .75. This shows convergent validity for the positive affectivity and negative affectivity variables.

Discriminant validity refers to the idea that if two constructs are distinct in their nature, the instruments used to measure these two constructs should share a minimal correlation. This can be assessed by performing a chi-square difference test on the values obtained for the constrained and unconstrained model. Discriminant validity is achieved if the chi-square values are significant. For the constrained model, the correlation parameter between two constructs was set to 1.0, whereas the correlation was freely estimated for the unconstrained model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

In this study, the “positive affectivity” construct was tested against the “negative affectivity” construct. Then, “positive affect” was tested against another construct, and so forth, until every possible pair of constructs was tested. The result of the chi-square difference tests is given in Appendix D. All chi-square differences were significant at $p < .001$; therefore, all constructs are considered to possess discriminant validity.

Table 5.3 presents the means, standard deviations, and inter-correlations of the latent variables. It should be noted that the inter-correlation between job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion was high (-.88). In order to further ensure the discriminant validity of these two factors, a complementary assessment of discriminant validity was conducted to determine “whether the confidence interval (\pm two standard errors) around the correlation estimate between the two factors includes 1.0” (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988, p.416).

Table 5.3. Means, Standard Deviations, and Inter-Correlations

	Range	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. FREQ	1-7	5.04	1.17	1										
2. DUR	1-7	4.60	1.24	.57**	1									
3. FREQDC	1-7	3.96	1.30	.44**	.31**	1								
4. PA	1-5	2.67	.49	.35**	.30**	.15*	1							
5. NA	1-5	2.32	.56	.08	-.05	.19**	-.04	1						
6. POS	1-6	3.96	.97	.17*	.13	-.12	.19**	-.26**	1					
7. JA	1-6	4.10	1.04	.19**	.23**	-.05	.29**	-.20**	.65**	1				
8. SA	1-5	2.36	.82	.08	.08	.29**	-.04	.23**	-.30**	-.28*	1			
9. DA	1-5	3.31	.80	.33**	.35**	.12	.36**	-.17*	.30**	.29**	.08	1		
10. EE	1-7	3.17	1.49	.01	-.11	.28**	-.25**	.43**	-.59**	-.56**	.51**	-.25**	1	
11. JS	1-7	5.06	1.35	.11	.14*	-.23**	.28**	-.34**	.68**	.58**	-.43**	.35**	-.88**	1

Note. n = 199. * p < .05; ** p < .01 FREQ= Frequency of Interactions; DUR= Duration of Interactions; FREQDC= Frequency of Interactions with Difficult Customers; PA= Positive Affectivity; NA= Negative Affectivity; POS= Perceived Organizational Support; JA= Job Autonomy; SA= Surface Acting; DA= Deep Acting; EE= Emotional Exhaustion; JS= Job Satisfaction.

The confidence interval between the two factors (job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion) was (.91, .99), indicating the discriminant validity of job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion.

As discussed in chapter 4, a limitation of the current study is that all of the data were collected using a single source (a self report questionnaire). Harman’s single-factor test was conducted to determine whether common method bias was a significant problem in the current research. To do this, a one-factor measurement model (representing the presence of a method factor) was compared to the 11-construct measurement model used in this study. The results of analysis are presented in Table 5.4. The results revealed that a single factor model did not fit the data well and had large and significant chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2(55) = 2736.22, p < .01$) when compared with the eleven-factor measurement model. This finding suggests that common method variance did not pose a serious threat to interpreting research findings (Harris & Mossholder, 1996).

Table 5.4. Results for the Analysis of Common Method Variance

Model	χ^2	df	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NNFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Measurement Model	640.32	472	.04	.05	.97	.97		
Single Method Factor	3376.54	527	.17	.14	.80	.78	2736.22*	55

Note. * $p < .01$.

In sum, despite the fact that the amount of explained variance for 9 of the indicators of latent variables was less than .5, the overall measurement model showed good fit to the data and the quality of construct measurement in terms of reliability and validity was good.

Statistical Power

As noted in chapter 4, in order to ensure that the sample size of the current research provided adequate power to reject null hypotheses when they are false, power analysis was conducted. Statistical power is defined as the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false (Cohen, 1988). It is important to ensure that research has adequate power for hypothesis tests because the lack of statistical power leads to a Type II errors. Power calculations can be undertaken by estimating the power associated with a test of close fit (e.g., testing the null hypothesis that the model has a close, even though imperfect fit in the population) (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000).

With respect to structural equation models, MacCallum et al. (2000) proposed a framework for power analysis which is based on RMSEA and noncentral chi-square distributions. In their framework, power analysis can be conducted by specifying sample size, significance criterion (α), model degrees of freedom (df_m), and effect size. They define effect size in terms of a pair of values, ϵ_0 and ϵ_a , where ϵ_0 is the null value of the RMSEA and ϵ_a is the alternative value of RMSEA.

Statistical power can be calculated using a simple SAS program provided by MacCallum et al. (1996). Their SAS programs are available to compute power at Preacher and Coffman's (2006) web page. Based on MacCallum et al.'s suggestions, the power estimate to reject the close-fit hypotheses is based on $\alpha = .05$, $\epsilon_0 = .05$ and $\epsilon_a = .08$ ($H_0: \epsilon_0 \leq 0.05$; $H_a: \epsilon_a = 0.08$). The result of power analysis indicated that with the sample size of 199 and $df_m = 480$ (see Table 5.5), the statistical power is .99. That is, if the model

actually does not have close fit in the population, then the probability of rejecting this incorrect model is 99.9%.

Test of Structural Model

The second stage of analysis in structural equation modelling (SEM) is to evaluate the full structural model which contains both the measurement model and the hypothesized structural paths among the latent constructs. The SEM also serves as a means of hypothesis testing. In order to identify the best-fitting model, the hypothesized structural model was tested against the alternative structural model proposed in the current research.

The hypothesized structural model consisted of paths from all the antecedents (frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, frequency of interactions with difficult customers, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, perceived organizational support, and job autonomy) to emotional labour (surface acting and deep acting), which in turn have links to emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. In addition to the mediated effects through emotional labour variables, direct effects of the antecedents on employees' well-being were also proposed. The proposed alternative model consisted of all paths from the hypothesized structural model with additional direct paths from positive affectivity, negative affectivity, perceived organizational support, and job autonomy to emotional exhaustion.

Table 5.5 presents the fit indices for the hypothesized structural model and alternative structural models, as well as the results of chi-square difference tests used to compare these models. In terms of the hypothesized model (Model 1), the results indeed

met the criteria for a good-fitting model on the basis of a number of fit statistics (RMSEA = .05, SRMR = .07, NNFI = .96, CFI = .97). For the alternative model (Model 2), the results also indicated that the model was a good fit to the data (RMSEA = .04, SRMR = .06, NNFI = .97, CFI = .97). These two models met Hu and Bentler’s (1999) decision rules stating that good fit is present when RMSEA is less than .06, SRMR is less than .09, NNFI is greater than .96, and CFI is greater than .96. As stated in chapter 4, the chi-square difference test was used to test whether there was a significant difference between Model 1 and Model 2. Although the Model 1 yielded similar results on a variety of fit indices as those of the Model 2, results of the chi-square differences tests ($\Delta\chi^2(4) = 48.13$, $p < .05$) indicated Model 2 fitted the data significantly better than the Model 1.

Table 5.5. Fit Indices for Structural Models

Model	X ²	df	p	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	NNFI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Model 1	704.78	480	.001	.05	.07	.97	.96		
Model 2	656.65	476	.001	.04	.06	.97	.97	48.13*	4

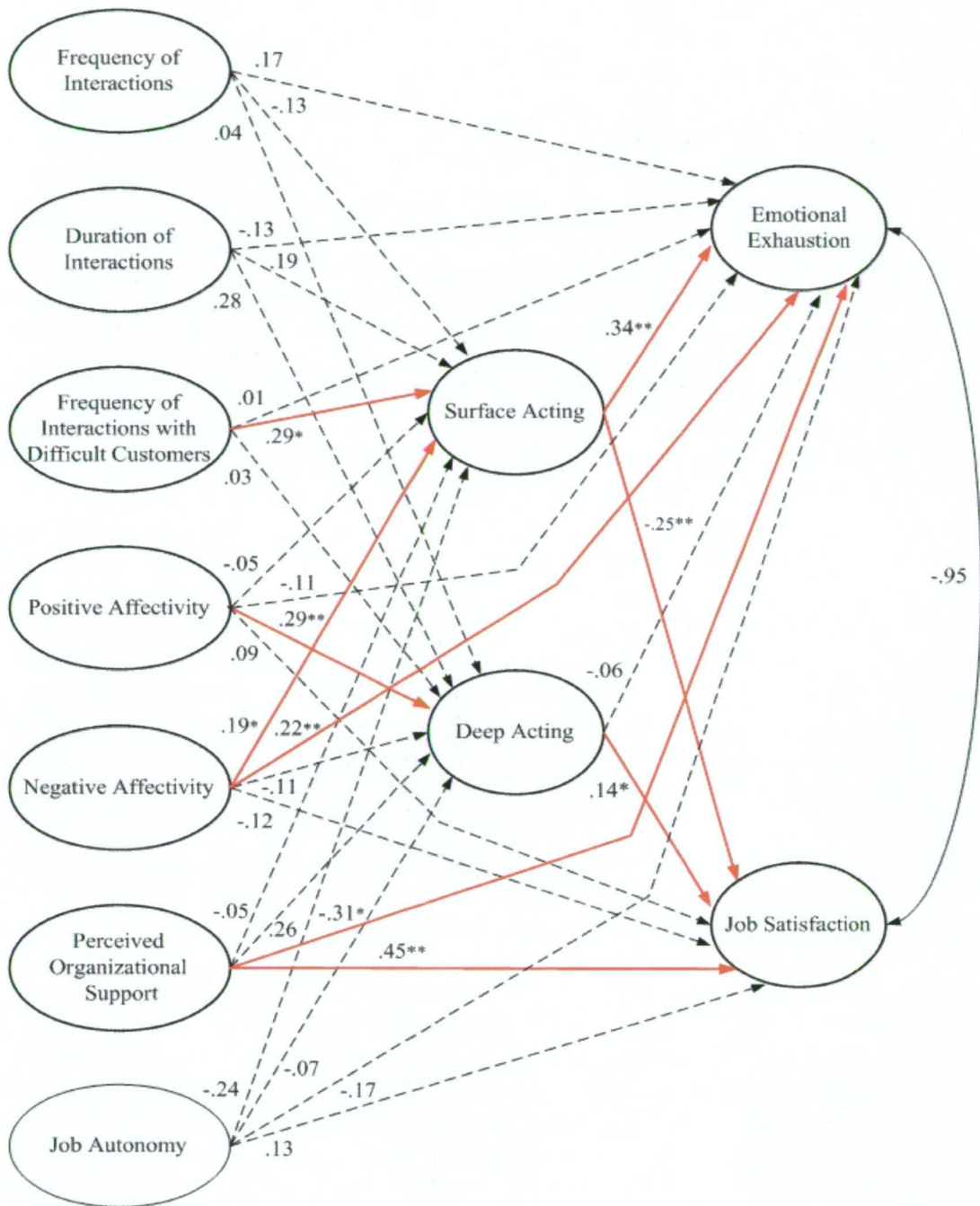
Note. * $p < .05$. Model 1= Hypothesized model, Model 2= Alternative model

The structural model of emotional labour including completely standardized solutions is displayed in Figure 5.1. This final structural model best represents the relationships found in the data. In terms of the endogenous variables, the final model explained 69% of the variance in emotional exhaustion and 71% of the variance in job satisfaction. The section below discusses the direct effects, indirect effects and total effects of the exogenous variables on the endogenous variables among the paths, significant at $p < .05$ level.

Total, Indirect, and Direct Effects

The total and indirect effects can help to answer important questions that are not addressed by examining the direct effects (Bollen, 1989). The direct effects are the influences of one variable on another that are not mediated by any other variable, while indirect effects are those that are mediated by at least one other variable. The total effects are the sum of the direct and indirect effects.

Table 5.6 presents the decomposed direct, indirect and total effects of latent variables. It can be seen that negative affectivity and frequency of interactions with difficult customers had significant total effects on surface acting (.19 and .29, respectively), while positive affectivity had total effects on deep acting (.29). For emotional exhaustion, the results revealed that three variables had significant total effects on emotional exhaustion. These variables were negative affectivity (.29), perceived organizational support (-.34), and surface acting (.34). For job satisfaction, the results indicated that four variables had significant total effects on job satisfaction.



$\chi^2 = 656.65$, $df = 476$, $RMSEA = .04$, $SRMR = .06$, $NNFI = .97$, $CFI = .97$

Figure 5.1. A Path Diagram for the Final Structural Model

Note. Standardized regression coefficients are shown, with supported hypothesized paths in solid arrows. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

These variables were negative affectivity (-.18), perceived organizational support (.50), surface acting (-.25), and deep acting (.14).

Table 5.6. Decomposed Direct, Indirect and Total Effects among Constructs

	SA			DA			EE			JS		
	DE	IE	TE	DE	IE	TE	DE	IE	TE	DE	IE	TE
FREQ	-.13		-.13	.04		.04	.17	-.05	.12		.04	.04
DUR	.19		.19	.28		.28	-.13	.05	-.08		-.01	-.01
FREQDC	.29*		.29*	.03		.03	.00	.10*	.10		-.07	-.07
PA	-.05		-.05	.29*		.29**	-.11	-.03	-.14	.09	.06	.15
NA	.19*		.19*	-.11		-.11	.22*	.07*	.29**	-.12	-.06*	-.18**
POS	-.05		-.05	.26		.26	-.31*	-.03	-.34**	.45**	.05	.50**
JA	-.24		-.24	-.07		-.07	-.17	-.08	-.25	.13	.05	.18
SA							.34**		.34**	-.25**		-.25**
DA							-.06		-.06	.14*		.14*

Note. FREQ= Frequency of Interactions; DUR= Duration of Interactions; FREQDC= Frequency of Interactions with Difficult Customers; PA= Positive Affectivity; NA= Negative Affectivity; POS= Perceived Organizational Support; JA= Job Autonomy; SA= Surface Acting; DA= Deep Acting; EE= Emotional Exhaustion; JS= Job Satisfaction; DE= Direct Effect; IE = Indirect Effect; TE= Total Effect
 *P < .05; **p < .01

Inspection of Table 5.6 and Figure 5.1 can facilitate the interpretation of different types of effects associated with a model. The results revealed that in addition to its direct effect on emotional exhaustion (.22), negative affectivity also had a significant indirect effect on emotional exhaustion through surface acting (.07). This means that surface acting partially mediated the relationship between negative affectivity and emotional exhaustion. It should also be noted that there was a significant indirect effect of frequency of interactions with difficult customers on emotional exhaustion through emotional labour

strategies (.10) but not a significant direct effect. This pattern of results represents the demonstration for a mediator effect (Kline, 2005). That is, surface acting mediated the relationship between frequency of interactions with difficult customers and emotional exhaustion. In addition, negative affectivity had a significant indirect effect on job satisfaction through surface acting (-.06), but no significant direct effect. This means that surface acting mediated the relationship between negative affectivity and job satisfaction.

These results suggested that a high NA employee tends to experience a higher level of emotional exhaustion and surface acting would raise his or her exhaustion level. He or she also tends to have less job satisfaction through the influence of performing emotional labour (surface acting). In addition, if the job demands required a higher frequency of interactions with difficult customers, employees are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion through their impact on performing emotional labour (surface acting).

Analysis of the Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1a, 1b and 1c. The first three hypotheses focused on the relationships between frequency of interactions and emotional labour strategies. Hypotheses 1a and 1b proposed that frequency of interactions would be positively related to surface acting and deep acting, respectively. However, inspection of the path coefficients in Figure 5.1 indicated that these hypotheses were not supported. Hypotheses 1a and 1b, frequency of interactions did not have a significant effect on surface acting ($\beta = -.13$) and deep acting ($\beta = .04$). Hypothesis 1c predicted that frequency of interactions would be more strongly related to surface acting than deep acting. To test this hypothesis, a model can be tested in

which the paths from the frequency of interactions to surface acting and to deep acting are constrained to be equal. Then, this model is compared to the final structural model via a chi-square difference test. If the change in chi-square is significant, then the hypothesis is supported. As the path coefficients of Hypotheses 1a and 1b were not significant, it was not necessary to test a model by constraining the paths to be equal and comparing them to the final structural model. Hence, Hypothesis 1c was not supported.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b. These two hypotheses focused on the relationships between duration of interactions and emotional labour strategies. Hypotheses 2a and 2b proposed that the duration of interactions would be negatively related to surface acting and positively related to deep acting, respectively. Results showed that these hypotheses were not supported. Examination of Figure 5.1 indicated that the regression coefficients of hypotheses 2a and 2b were not statistically significant ($\beta = .19$ and $\beta = .28$, respectively).

Hypotheses 3a and 3b. These hypotheses pertained to the relationships between frequency of interactions with difficult customers and emotional labour strategies. It was proposed that frequency of interactions with difficult customers would be positively related to surface acting (Hypothesis 3a) and negatively related to deep acting (Hypothesis 3b). Hypothesis 3a was supported but hypothesis 3b was not supported. As can be seen in Figure 5.1, the path coefficient between frequency of interactions with difficult customers and surface acting was .29, while the path coefficient of hypothesis 3b was very weak and not statistically significant ($\beta = .03$).

Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 5a and 5b. These hypotheses focused on the relationships between affectivity and emotional labour strategies. Hypotheses 4a and 4b proposed that

positive affectivity would be negatively related to surface acting and positively related to deep acting, respectively. As shown in Figure 5.1, PA was positively related to deep acting ($\beta = .29$) but not related to surface acting ($\beta = -.05$). Hypotheses 5a and 5b proposed that the negative affectivity would be positively related to surface acting and negatively related to deep acting. Results showed that NA had a positive effect on surface acting ($\beta = .19$), whereas NA was not significantly related to deep acting ($\beta = -.11$).

Hypotheses 6a and 6b. These hypotheses focused on the relationships between POS and emotional labour strategies. It was proposed that POS would be negatively related to surface acting (Hypothesis 6a) and positively related to deep acting (Hypothesis 6b). Contrary to predictions, Hypotheses 6a and 6b were not supported. The path coefficients between POS and surface acting and deep acting were not statistically significant ($\beta = -.05$ and $\beta = .26$, respectively)

Hypotheses 7a and 7b. These hypotheses focused on the relationships between job autonomy and emotional labour strategies. It was expected that there would be a negative relationship between job autonomy and surface acting (Hypothesis 7a) and a positive relationship between job autonomy and deep acting (Hypothesis 7b). Review of Figure 5.1 shows that there were no significant relationships between job autonomy and surface acting ($\beta = -.24$) and deep acting ($\beta = -.07$), providing no support for Hypotheses 7a and 7b.

Hypotheses 8a, 8b, 9a and 9b. In these hypotheses, the relationships between emotional labour strategies and an employee's well-being (emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction) were predicted. Hypotheses 8a and 9a proposed that surface acting would be positively related to emotional exhaustion and negatively related to job satisfaction,

respectively. Support for Hypotheses 8a and 9a, is shown in Figure 5.1. Surface acting had a positive effect on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .34$) and a negative effect on job satisfaction ($\beta = -.25$). Hypotheses 8b and 9b proposed that deep acting would be negatively related to emotional exhaustion and positively related to job satisfaction, respectively. Inspection of the path coefficients in Figure 5.1 indicated support for Hypothesis 9b but not for Hypothesis 8b. Deep acting was positively related to job satisfaction ($\beta = .14$), whereas deep acting did not have a significant effect on emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.06$)

Hypotheses 10a, 10b and 10c. These hypotheses focused on the relationships between emotional job demands and emotional exhaustion. Hypotheses 10a, 10b, and 10c proposed that the frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers, respectively, would be positively related to emotional exhaustion. Examination of results in Figure 5.1 indicated that the path coefficients of Hypotheses 10a, 10b, and 10c were not statistically significant ($\beta = .17$, $\beta = -.13$, and $\beta = .01$, respectively). Thus, the findings of this study failed to provide support for these hypotheses.

Hypotheses 11a and 11b. These hypotheses focused on the relationships between affectivity and job satisfaction. Hypotheses 11a and 11b proposed that PA would be positively related to job satisfaction and NA would be negatively related to job satisfaction, respectively. As can be seen in Figure 5.1, the path coefficients between PA and job satisfaction ($\beta = .09$) as well as between NA and job satisfaction ($\beta = -.12$) were not significant. Consequently, Hypotheses 11a and 11b were not supported.

Hypotheses 12 and 13. It was expected that POS and job autonomy would be positively related to job satisfaction. Review of Figure 5.1 showed a significant relationship between POS and job satisfaction ($\beta = .45$) but a nonsignificant relationship between job autonomy and job satisfaction ($\beta = .13$). Thus, Hypothesis 12 was supported but Hypothesis 13 was not.

Hypotheses 14a, 14b, 14c and 14d. These hypotheses focused on the relationships between personal and organizational resources and emotional exhaustion. It was expected that PA, POS, and job autonomy would be negatively related to emotional exhaustion (Hypotheses 14a, 14c, and 14d, respectively) and NA would be positively related to emotional exhaustion (Hypothesis 14b). Review of Figure 5.1 indicated significant relationships between NA and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = .22$) and between POS and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.31$) but nonsignificant relationships between PA and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.11$) and between job autonomy and emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.17$). Thus, Hypotheses 14b and 14c were supported but Hypotheses 14a and 14d were not.

Table 5.7 presents the list of the hypotheses proposed in this study, and whether they were supported or not by SEM analyses. As can be seen in Table 5.7, among the 30 proposed hypotheses (including six alternative paths), 9 hypotheses were supported.

Table 5.7. Summary of Results of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Results
H1a: Frequency of interactions is positively related to surface acting.	Not supported
H1b: Frequency of interactions is positively related to deep acting.	Not supported
H1c: Frequency of interactions is more strongly related to surface acting than deep acting.	Not Supported
H2a: Duration of interactions is negatively related to surface acting.	Not supported
H2b: Duration of interactions is positively related to deep acting.	Not supported
H3a: Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is positively related to surface acting.	Supported
H3b: Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is negatively related to deep acting.	Not supported
H4a: PA is negatively related to surface acting.	Not supported
H4b: PA is positively related to deep acting.	Supported
H5a: NA is positively related to surface acting.	Supported
H5b: NA is negatively related to deep acting	Not supported
H6a: POS is negatively related to surface acting.	Not supported
H6b: POS is positively related to deep acting.	Not supported
H7a: Job autonomy is negatively related to surface acting.	Not supported
H7b: Job autonomy is positively related to deep acting.	Not supported
H8a: Surface acting is positively related to emotional exhaustion.	Supported
H8b: Deep acting is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.	Not supported
H9a: Surface acting is negatively related to job satisfaction.	Supported
H9b: Deep acting is positively related to job satisfaction.	Supported
H10a: Frequency of interactions is positively related to emotional exhaustion.	Not supported
H10b: Duration of interactions is positively related to emotional exhaustion.	Not supported

Table 5.7. Continued

Hypotheses	Results
H10c: Frequency of interactions with difficult customers is positively related to emotional exhaustion.	Not supported
H11a: PA is positively related to job satisfaction.	Not supported
H11b: NA is negatively related to job satisfaction.	Not supported
H12: POS is positively related to job satisfaction.	Supported
H13: Job autonomy is positively related to job satisfaction.	Not supported
H14a: PA is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.	Not Supported
H14b: NA is positively related to emotional exhaustion.	Supported
H14c: POS is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.	Supported
H14d: Job autonomy is negatively related to emotional exhaustion.	Not supported

Chapter Summary

The first section of this chapter discussed the characteristics of the sample, non-response bias, and the data screening including examination of missing data and assumptions required for SEM. A series of confirmatory factor analyses were then performed to test the fit of the measurement model. Reliability and validity indices for each construct were examined. All constructs were found to have reliability ranging from .75 to .91 (exceeding the threshold of .70 for acceptable reliability). In addition, the results of chi-square difference tests on the values obtained for the constrained and unconstrained model showed that all constructs possessed discriminant validity.

Finally, the structural model was examined to specify the relationships among constructs. Statistical power of the current research to reject incorrect models was .99. The results of the chi-square differences tests indicated that the alternative model (including the paths from resources to emotional exhaustion) fitted the data significantly

better than the hypothesized model. Of the 30 research hypotheses tested in the current research, nine hypotheses were supported. The results indicated that frequency of interactions with difficult customers and NA were positively related to surface acting as well as PA was positively related to deep acting. In addition, NA and surface acting were positively, but POS was negatively, related to emotional exhaustion as well as deep acting and POS were positively but surface acting was negatively related to job satisfaction.

The next chapter will provide a discussion of the findings of the current research and recommendations for further research. Implications and limitations of this study will also be presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

Discussion and Conclusion

In this final chapter, the findings from the data analyses presented in the previous chapter are discussed. The theoretical and practical implications of the findings are also discussed. Following this, the limitations of this study are presented. Finally, potential directions for future research are suggested.

The goal of the present study was to develop and test a model of emotional labour which identified both its antecedents and consequences. The hypothesized antecedents of the emotional labour strategies of surface acting and deep acting included emotional job demands (frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers) and resources (affectivity, perceived organizational support, and job autonomy). The hypothesized consequences of emotional labour strategies were emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. The following section discusses the research findings in relation to the hypotheses proposed in the current research.

Emotional Job Demands and Emotional Labour

The current research proposed that emotional job demands (frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers) would affect the choice of emotional labour strategies. The results indicated that there were no significant relationships between frequency or duration of interactions and either surface acting or deep acting. The nonsignificant paths to surface acting and

deep acting suggested that employees who choose to surface act or deep act will do so regardless of frequency and duration of interactions. Therefore, the nature of typical customer interactions may have a less prominent role in influencing whether people engage in “surface acting” or “deep acting” in service interactions. These nonsignificant results conflict with previous research findings which have shown positive relationships between frequency of interactions and either surface acting or deep acting (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) as well as a positive relationship between duration of interactions and deep acting (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003). However, it should be noted that the nonsignificant relationships between frequency of interactions and surface acting and deep acting are consistent with the findings of Diefendorff et al. (2005).

These nonsignificant findings could have occurred for several reasons. First, a possible reason for these discrepant results may be that the significant relationships found in previous studies (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) were based on bivariate correlations. Bivariate correlations in the current research also showed significant positive relationships between frequency and duration of interactions and deep acting (see Table 5.3). However the paths in the structural model were not significant, indicating the frequency and duration of interactions did not account for unique variance in deep acting beyond that of the other antecedents. Therefore, it is likely that if previous studies had utilized more comprehensive analytical techniques, they may have found results similar to the current research. For example, Diefendorff et al. (2005) found that duration was negatively correlated with surface acting but was not predictive of surface acting when the relationships were examined in simultaneous regression analyses.

Mikolajczak et al. (2007) argued that there are “situations in which expressed, felt and required emotions concord” or “in which felt and expressed feelings concord but are at odds with organizational display rules” (p.1109). Therefore, another likely explanation for these nonsignificant relationships may be that apart from surface acting and deep acting, employees may spontaneously and genuinely display the expected emotions. As noted in chapter 2, Diefendorff et al. (2005) found that employees genuinely display required emotions on the job more often than either surface acting or deep acting. However, as discussed in chapter 2, the current research argued that when employees genuinely express the emotions required by an organization, they are not performing emotional labour because no emotion regulation is involved. It is also possible that employees may simply display their felt emotions regardless of organizationally desired emotions. In this case, the employee “deliberately chooses to ignore organizational display rules to express her/his inner feelings” (Mikolajczak et al., 2007, p.1109). This implies that despite the existence of organizationally required emotions (e.g., smile), employees may spontaneously display felt emotions (e.g., irritation) while they are not being supervised or if they have no commitment to display organizationally required emotions. Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) suggested that a motivational component (e.g., commitment to the display rules) affects whether employees engage in performing emotional labour. They found that individuals with high levels of commitment to display rules are more likely to use a deep acting strategy to express organizationally desired emotions. Therefore, an employee’s commitment to display organizationally required emotions may be a factor in explaining why the current research failed to find significant relationships between frequency and duration of interactions and emotional labour

strategies. That is, if people have no commitment to perform emotional labour, they are unwilling to engage in either surface acting or deep acting when they do not feel the required emotions.

As expected, the frequency of interactions with difficult customers was positively related to surface acting. This result suggests that employees are more likely to use a surface acting strategy (change only their expressions) while dealing with a rude or demanding customer at work. In order to comply with organizationally required emotions, employees tend to engage in surface acting (e.g., put on a smile) in response to such negative affective events. Research, using an experience-sampling method, found that employees utilized surface acting in response to negative events (Grandey et al., 2002; Totterdell & Holman, 2003). Therefore, this finding supports the idea that surface acting is the choice for displaying organizationally desired emotions when encountering difficult customers.

Additionally, the results showed no relationship between the frequency of interactions with difficult customers and deep acting. This nonsignificant finding indicated that deep acting is not the chosen emotional labour strategy when interacting with difficult customers. As mentioned previously, an employee may express her/his inner feelings regardless of organizational display rules. Therefore, one explanation is that if employees do not show organizationally required emotions through surface acting while dealing with a difficult customer, they may simply display felt emotions (e.g., irritation) towards a complaining customer. For example, in addition to surface acting, employees who felt threatened by customer aggression used vented emotions (Grandey et al., 2004). Based on the emotional contagion phenomenon, as discussed in chapter 3,

people catch or begin to share the moods of those around them by mimicking their movements, expressions, postures, and vocalizations (Hatfield et al., 1994). An employee's emotions are influenced by the emotional state of a customer. That is, a customer's negative emotions spread to employees through the contagion process. Interacting with difficult customers, therefore, increases the likelihood that employees will spontaneously show their felt emotions (i.e., impatience and anger) towards a customer if they are either not willing to or not able to show organizationally desired emotions through emotional labour strategies.

Resources and Emotional Labour

The current research proposed that positive affectivity (PA) would be negatively related to surface acting but positively related to deep acting, while negative affectivity (NA) would be positively related to surface acting but negatively related to deep acting. However, the results failed to show that people high on PA were less likely to perform emotional labour by surface acting. One possible explanation for this nonsignificant relationship between PA and surface acting is that some participants in this study are introverts even though they score high in PA. Bono and Vey (2007) suggested that it may be more stressful for introverts to display enthusiasm to customers. Introversion is frequently associated with not being sociable, gregarious, assertive, talkative, and active (Barrick & Mount, 1991). In this case, it may be easier for introverts to express only the outward expressions of the required emotions (surface acting).

As expected, PA was positively related to deep acting. This result, consistent with Gosserand and Diefendorff's (2005) finding, demonstrates that employees high on PA are

more likely to use deep acting as an emotional labour strategy to comply with organizationally desired emotions. As noted in chapter 3 in relation to emotional labour strategies, deep acting refers to an attempt to modify inner feelings to be consistent with organizationally required emotions, which can be achieved through attentional deployment (e.g., focusing one's attention on the positive aspects of the situation) or cognitive change (e.g., reappraise the situation in a more positive way). As high PA employees are prone to experiencing positive moods (Watson & Clark, 1984), it would be easy for them to change inner feelings by thinking something positive, in order to express positive emotions (this study assumes that positive emotions are organizationally desired emotions). In other words, employees high on PA tend to engage in "deep acting" to call up the desired positive emotions when they do not feel the required emotions at that moment.

Consistent with expectations, results showed that NA was positively related to surface acting. The finding of a significant positive relationship between NA and surface acting is consistent with previous research (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). This finding suggested that employees high on NA, who experience negative emotions more often, tend to engage in surface acting to display organizationally required emotions. That is, people high on NA are more likely to use surface acting (e.g., put on a smile) to perform emotional labour when their felt emotions are different from the required emotions at that moment.

Contrary to expectations, the results failed to provide evidence that NA was negatively related to deep acting. However, this nonsignificant relationship is in line with the findings of Brotheridge and Lee (2003). A possible explanation for this nonsignificant

relationship may be that employees, even though they are high in NA, might attempt to make efforts to change their inner feelings to express organizationally desired emotions (deep acting) if they have a commitment to display rules. As stated earlier, a motivational component (e.g., commitment to the display rules) may influence whether employees engage in performing emotional labour (Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005).

Overall, the findings with regard to the relationships between affectivity and emotional labour strategies imply that surface acting is associated with less positive dispositional characteristics (e.g., NA), whereas deep acting is associated with more positive attributes (e.g., PA).

Perceived organizational support and job autonomy were proposed to be negatively related to surface acting and positively related to deep acting. Surprisingly, the results showed that there were no significant relationships between POS and job autonomy and either surface acting or deep acting. Although significant bivariate correlations in the current research suggested that relationships exist between these variables, the coefficient paths of POS and job autonomy to emotional labour strategies in the structural model were not significant when all other predictors of surface acting and deep acting were taken into account. These findings showed that POS and job autonomy do not account for any additional unique variance in emotional labour strategies beyond that accounted for by the other antecedents.

Although past research has argued that employees who feel high levels of POS also feel an obligation to reciprocate by increasing efforts to help their organization to reach their goals (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Wayne et al., 1997), the nonsignificant relationships between POS and either surface acting or deep

acting failed to support this idea. One potential explanation may be that some employees who participated in this study simply did not consider performing emotional labour as a means of return to an organization for its support. It is possible that employees may feel an obligation to reciprocate to the organization through behaviours not investigated in the current research, or that employees perceiving support from their organization may take the organizational support for granted and not feel an obligation to perform emotional labour.

In addition, the current research failed to find significant relationships between job autonomy and either surface acting or deep acting. One likely explanation for these nonsignificant relationships may be that employees in this study who perceive job autonomy may ignore display rules to simply display their felt emotions instead of trying to regulate their emotions to express organizationally desired emotions in response to the state of perceived emotional dissonance. Another possible explanation may be that employees may use strategies such as helping others, staying busy, venting, mediating and daydreaming to regulate their emotions (Larsen, 2000; Larsen & Gschwandtner, 1995). Therefore, individuals who have job autonomy may choose to use such emotion regulation strategies other than surface acting or deep acting.

Emotional Labour and Employees' Well-being

In the present research, emotional labour strategies of surface acting and deep acting were proposed to be related to emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction. Consistent with expectations, the results showed that surface acting was positively related to emotional exhaustion and negatively related to job satisfaction. The findings for these

relationships are consistent with previous research (Grandey, 2003; Grandey et al., 2005b; Zhang & Zhu, 2008). These findings indicated that when employees employ surface acting (suppressing felt emotions and faking required emotions) as a strategy for performing emotional labour, they are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion and to be dissatisfied with their jobs. Hence, surface acting is a costly strategy because it not only involves a great expenditure of energy by requiring employees to hide their true feelings and fake unfelt feelings, but also because it increases emotional dissonance (Mikolajczak et al., 2007).

As predicted, deep acting was found to have a positive effect on how people feel about their job. This finding suggested that when people are willing to exert effort to change their inner feelings to display positive emotions which they do not feel, they are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs in general because they may actually experience positive emotions through deep acting. This finding is also consistent with the idea that greater attempts to experience positive emotions was related to greater satisfaction at work (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). However, the results indicated that deep acting was not significantly related to emotional exhaustion. Although bivariate correlations in this study showed a significant negative relationship between deep acting and emotional exhaustion (see Table 5.3), the coefficient path of deep acting to emotional exhaustion in the structural model was not significant. One likely explanation is that the current research, in line with other studies, (Grandey, 2003; Martínez-Iñigo et al., 2007) argued that deep acting may lead to resource gain because of positive reactions from customers. However, other research has found that deep acting was positively related to burnout (Mikolajczak et al., 2007). Therefore, it is possible that some participants in the current

research, who engaged in deep acting, did not restore enough emotional resources to lessen their feelings of emotional exhaustion as a result of the great expenditure of energy to deeply modify their feelings to match the required emotions.

Emotional Job Demands and Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional job demands in terms of frequency of interactions, duration of interactions, and frequency of interactions with difficult customers were proposed to be positively related to emotional exhaustion. Surprisingly, results showed no support for these relationships. In other words, interactions with customers in terms of frequency or duration cannot be viewed as client-related stressors, which lead to emotional exhaustion.

As noted in chapter 3, research has showed mixed findings with regard to the relationships between frequency and duration of interactions and emotional exhaustion. One possible explanation is that what matters more is quality with respect to the nature of interactions with customers. Interactions with customers may be experienced as pleasant or unpleasant. Zapf et al. (2001) argued that the quality of interactions can be assumed to affect the cognitive and emotional aspects of work. Therefore, despite requiring frequent or long interactions with customers, if employees experience pleasure during these interactions, these feelings may alleviate exhaustion from the work.

Another likely explanation is that the current research assumed that frequent or long interactions mean that more emotional demands require the performance of emotional labour because they increased the likelihood of experiencing emotional dissonance which, in turn, resulted in emotional exhaustion. However, it appears that people whose jobs entail frequent or long interactions with customers do not necessarily

have to experience emotional dissonance. They may spontaneously feel required emotions during service interactions. In this case, it is possible that emotional dissonance, which was not investigated in the present study, mediated the relationships between frequency and duration of interactions and emotional exhaustion. For example, Bakker and Heuven (2006) found that emotionally charged interactions with passengers were positively related to emotional exhaustion through emotional dissonance.

The results also showed that frequent interactions with difficult customers had no direct effects on emotional exhaustion. One possible explanation may be that job-related stressors (e.g., workload) are more strongly correlated with burnout than customer-related stressors (e.g., frequent interactions with difficult customers) (Bakker & Heuven, 2006). In this case, other job related stressors, which were not investigated in this study, may play an important role in explaining this nonsignificant relationship. Additionally, results indicated that the frequency of interactions with difficult customers had a significant indirect effect on emotional exhaustion through surface acting (see Table 5.6 and Figure 5.1). This means that employees are more likely to suffer emotional exhaustion if they only modify outward displays to be consistent with organizationally required emotions (surface acting). As has been noted, surface acting increases emotional dissonance and is associated with emotional exhaustion. In contrast, they may be less likely to experience emotional exhaustion if they simply show felt emotions towards difficult customers rather than performing emotional labour.

Resources and Job Satisfaction

Against predictions, the current investigation failed to find significant relationships between affectivity (PA and NA) and job satisfaction. The findings from bivariate correlations (see Table 5.3) that PA was positively, and NA was negatively, correlated to job satisfaction are generally in line with the findings of Connolly and Viswesvaran (2000) and Thoresen et al. (2003). However, the coefficient paths from affectivity to job satisfaction in the structural model were not significant when all other predictors of job satisfaction were taken into account. Hence, these results indicated that affectivity did not account for any additional unique variance in job satisfaction above and beyond that accounted for by the other variables.

One potential explanation is that other factors play an important role in people's feeling of satisfaction on their job (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Heller, Judge, & Watson, 2002). Research has found that only 10-25% of the variance in job satisfaction can be explained by individual differences in affectivity (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000). Situational factors such as pay, working conditions, promotional opportunities, and distributive justice may partially explain these nonsignificant findings. It may be that some participants in this study did not feel that they had opportunities for promotion or their jobs were repetitive which related to low job satisfaction, even though they were high in PA. In other words, situational determinants (e.g., pay) may have a much stronger impact on employee job satisfaction.

Another possible reason may be that the relationship between personality and job satisfaction is mediated by moods (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Heller et al., 2002; Judge & Ilies, 2004) or individual perceptions of fair treatment by the organization (Thoresen et al.,

2003). For instance, Brief and Weiss (2002) suggested that mood at work explains, in part, the relationship between affectivity and job satisfaction. It may be the case that mood (state affect) or organizational justice which are not investigated in the current study, influence job satisfaction more than affectivity does. In addition, the results showed that emotional labour strategies (surface acting) mediated the relationship between NA and job satisfaction (see Table 5.6 and Figure 5.1). NA had a significant indirect effect on job satisfaction through surface acting suggesting that employees high on NA are more likely to be dissatisfied with their jobs if they engage in surface acting to express organizationally required emotions.

As expected, the results indicated that POS was positively related to job satisfaction. This finding supported the idea that employees who perceive that their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being are more likely to experience job satisfaction (Armstrong-Stassen, 1998; Bradley & Cartwright, 2002; Burke, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 1997; Laschinger et al., 2006). The results also suggested that regardless of whether or not employees engage in emotional labour, those perceiving high levels of support from an organization are more likely to be satisfied with their working environments than those with low levels of POS.

Contrary to expectations, job autonomy was not a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Although significant bivariate correlations in the current research suggested that job autonomy was positively related to job satisfaction (see Table 5.3), the coefficient path of job autonomy to job satisfaction in the structural model was not significant when all other predictors were taken into account. This result indicated that job autonomy did

not account for any additional unique variance in job satisfaction beyond that accounted for by the other variables.

This nonsignificant result could have occurred for two reasons. One likely explanation may be that the current research neglected some important personal characteristics, such as “need for autonomy” and “growth need strength”. Growth need strength refers to the need for growth and development in the job (de Jong, Van der Velde, & Jansen, 2001). People with low growth need strength “do not seek to satisfy needs for growth and accomplishment at work” (Tiegs, Tetrick, & Fried, 1992, p.578). It is possible that some employees in this study do not desire the latitude of control over their job or their growth needs are low. Therefore, jobs that entail autonomy may not lead to an increase in positive feelings. Another possible explanation may be that this study did not take “responsibility for performance” into account in examining the relationship between job autonomy and job satisfaction. According to Hackman and Oldham’s model (1976), the presence of job autonomy leads to the psychological state of felt responsibility for outcomes, resulting in high job satisfaction. Increased job autonomy usually means increased responsibility. Nevertheless, some people may not desire such responsibility and therefore would rather not be provided with increased job autonomy (Sainfort, 1990). Thus, it is possible that job autonomy did not enhance employees’ job satisfaction but actually decreased positive feelings with their job because some employees do not like to take responsibility for their job performance.

Resources and Emotional Exhaustion

PA was proposed to be negatively related to emotional exhaustion. However, the results showed that there was no significant relationship between these two constructs in the model. It should be noted that bivariate correlations in this study showed a significant negative relationship between PA and emotional exhaustion which is consistent with a meta-analytic finding which indicates that PA is negatively correlated to emotional exhaustion (Thoresen et al., 2003). Nevertheless, the coefficient path of PA to emotional exhaustion in the structural model was not significant when all other antecedents of emotional exhaustion were taken into account. One possible explanation may be that other variables mediate relations between affectivity and attitudinal outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment, and emotional exhaustion (Thoresen et al., 2003). It is possible that employees in the current research face role conflict and ambiguity at work or conflict between the work and family, and thus these environmental stressors result in emotional exhaustion even if employees are high in PA.

As expected, the results indicated a significant positive relationship between NA and emotional exhaustion. This finding was consistent with previous research (e.g., Thoresen et al., 2003), suggesting that people high in NA are prone to experience a variety of negative emotional states, and are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion. In addition to a direct effect of NA on emotional exhaustion, a closer examination of the results indicated a significant indirect effect on emotional exhaustion through surface acting (see Table 5.6 and Figure 5.1). This implies that a high NA employee not only tends to experience a higher level of emotional exhaustion but also if

he or she engages in surface acting, this emotional labour strategy (e.g., faking unfelt emotions) would raise his or her exhaustion level.

Consistent with expectations, the results indicated that POS was negatively related to emotional exhaustion. This finding supported the idea that employees with high POS suffer fewer strain symptoms, such as emotional exhaustion, fatigue, and anxiety (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). It suggests that employees who perceive their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being tend to experience less emotional exhaustion than those who perceive that their organization is unsupportive. It is argued that POS can help to fulfil important socio-emotional needs of employees (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and such need fulfilment, in turn, diminishes employees' feeling of emotional exhaustion.

Job autonomy was proposed to have a negative relationship with emotional exhaustion. Surprisingly, the finding was not supported in the structural model. However, it should be noted that bivariate coefficients showed that there was a significant negative relationship between job autonomy and emotional exhaustion. One possible explanation is that job autonomy is non-linearly associated with emotional exhaustion (de Jonge & Schaufeli, 1998). However, the curvilinear shape is not clear. For example, instead of a moderate level of autonomy being related to low levels of emotional exhaustion, De Jonge and Schaufeli (1998) found that the relationship between job autonomy and emotional exhaustion is an inverted U-shape (moderate autonomy is related to higher levels of exhaustion). Another possible explanation is that the need for autonomy may play an important role in explaining this nonsignificant relationship. It can be speculated that the need for autonomy or need for growth may affect the relationship between job

autonomy and emotional exhaustion. Specifically, for those lacking need for autonomy, high levels of job autonomy are potentially harmful for the individual's level of mental health because it implies uncertainty, difficulty in decision making and high responsibility on the job (Warr, 1987). This raises the possibility that people with a high level of job autonomy and low need for growth are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion because of a lack of desire for control over their job. However, it is also possible that employees with a high need for autonomy would benefit by having latitude of control over their own job.

Implications

The results of the present research have some important implications for future research and human resource practice in the service industries. With regard to research, the current investigation makes several contributions to the existing organizational literature. First, a major theoretical contribution is that this is the first study to apply the Job Demands-Resources model (JD-R) to explain the antecedents and consequences of emotional labour. Although the original JD-R model concentrated on the direct relationship between job demands and resources and psychological outcomes, this study showed the mediating role of emotional labour strategies in the model. The results showed that the relationships between NA and job satisfaction and emotional exhaustion operate through the mediating effect of emotional labour strategies (surface acting). Furthermore, this study showed that frequency of interactions with difficult customers was related to emotional exhaustion through surface acting. That is, employees

interacting with difficult customers would experience emotional exhaustion only if they use surface acting to express required emotions.

Second, the present research confirmed findings of previous research regarding the relationship between affectivity and emotional labour. This study showed that people high on PA are more likely to use deep acting, while people high on NA tend to use surface acting. The results also provided evidence that emotional labour plays an important role in determining employees' well-being. This study showed that employees who use surface acting as a strategy to perform emotional labour are more likely to experience emotional exhaustion and job dissatisfaction. In contrast, if employees use deep acting to regulate their emotions, they are more satisfied with their job. These findings supported Ashforth and Tomiuk's argument (2000) that surface acting and deep acting represent a different internal state, which would lead to different impacts on employees' well-being. Third, although the relationship between perceived organizational support and emotional labour was not significant, employees perceiving support from an organization had more satisfaction with their job and less exhaustion. This suggests that perceived organizational support may be viewed as a useful resource to ameliorate the negative effects of surface acting on emotional exhaustion.

Finally, the present research made some methodological contributions. First, the current research utilized a longitudinal design, rather than the cross-sectional design which has been utilized by much emotional labour research. Independent and dependent variables were collected at two different points in time, which is a technique to reduce common method variance. Second, the sampling methodology used in this study decreased the possible impact of contextual constraints inherent in a particular occupation

or organization as participants were sampled from many different types of occupations in a variety of organizations.

The results of the current study also have several practical implications for organizations, in areas including selection, training, and organizational support.

Selection

The current research showed that emotional labour strategies were related to different outcomes for employees. Surface acting was found to be positively related to emotional exhaustion and negatively related to job satisfaction, whereas deep acting was negatively related to emotional exhaustion. In order to maximize job satisfaction and minimize emotional exhaustion, organizations should recruit people who are more likely to use deep acting to perform emotional labour rather than using surface acting. When an organization attempts to enhance the amount of deep acting, selection may be more effective than trying to redesign jobs (Diefendorff et al., 2005). In order to find the right people to perform emotional labour, display rules should be incorporated into the job description. Therefore, a realistic job preview can be provided during a job interview. Bono and Vey (2007) suggested that “organizations selecting employees for roles that require emotional regulation may benefit by including personality in their selection process” (p.189). The current research found that affectivity predicted what types of strategies employees will use to perform emotional labour. High PA employees were more likely to deep act and high NA ones were more likely to surface act. In addition, individuals low on NA were less likely to experience emotional exhaustion. Therefore, organizations should recruit and select individuals high on PA and low on NA for jobs

that require a display of positive emotions. However, it is important to note that selecting an employee for emotional labour jobs should also consider other personality characteristics; especially when cultural and ethnical differences are considered.

Training

The current research showed that surface acting had negative impacts on employees' well-being and that deep acting was positively related to job satisfaction. As research has found that inauthenticity inherent in surface acting can be detected by customers (Grandey et al., 2005a) and as deep acting may be positively related to service performance (Grandey, 2000), organizations may benefit from training their employees in using deep acting to express the appropriate emotions in service interactions.

Organizations, therefore, should provide training programs for their employees on how to effectively perform emotional labour. As suggested by Kruml and Geddes (2000b, p.185), "similar to teaching drama students to "feel" the part, employers may be able to teach workers how to "feel" in certain ways that will help them reach organizational goals".

Organizations should invest in deep acting training techniques that would help employees learn how to feel in certain ways to help them to change their inner feelings.

The effective use of deep acting techniques includes changing focus and cognitively reappraising the unpleasant situation. These two types of emotion regulation can help employees to change their internal states (thoughts and feelings) and to express organizationally desired emotions (Grandey, 2000). An employee can learn to change focus by thinking about events that evoke certain feelings that one needs in that situation. Organizations can train employees on how to direct their attention so that they can

practice skills to prompt or suppress certain emotions at will. Organizations can also train employees on how to cognitively reappraise difficult situations in a more positive light. For example, Hochschild (1983) reported that flight attendants were trained to practice modifying their actual feelings by imagining the difficult passengers as children (cognitive reappraisal) so that they would not get angry with them. Indeed, research found that cognitive reappraisal is an effective strategy for improving mood (Totterdell & Parkinson, 1999).

Introducing emotional labour information into employee training programs can also help employees understand that different emotional labour strategies have different impacts on them. Employees should know deep acting is an effective strategy to express organizationally required emotions.

In addition, the results of this research indicated that employees tended to use surface acting when interacting with difficult customers. It is important to train employees to use deep acting rather than surface acting in such unpleasant situations because surface acting could increase emotional exhaustion and decrease job satisfaction. Training in interpersonal skills (Kruml & Geddes, 2000b) could also help employees to develop the necessary skills for dealing with difficult customers. For example, training in empathy skills may facilitate the use of deep acting because employees may put themselves in a complaining customer's shoes, and thereby reduce emotional exhaustion. In addition, the need for employees to vent their anger and frustration caused by their job is also important. Organizations should provide formal or informal ways to vent employees' negative emotions caused by their job. For example, organizations can

provide emotional support which includes listening and having empathy for employees (Fiksenbaum et al., 2006) to help them to deal with difficult situations.

As previous research has shown that managers and supervisors can influence the emotional experience of their employees (Ashkanasy, 2003; Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Pescosolido, 2002), leaders also need better training in how to express their emotions effectively. Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) found that managers also do a great deal of emotional labour. Humphrey, Pollack, and Hawver (2008) argued that leaders who perform emotional labour through deep acting will be perceived as better communicators than leaders who use surface acting. Thus, in addition to formal management training programs, managerial and supervisory training should also include programs, such as how to effectively express the appropriate emotions, how to provide emotional support, how to handle employee complaints, and how to provide feedback and constructive opinions.

Organizational support

Although perceived organizational support did not relate to emotional labour strategies in this study, the results showed that organizations can enhance their employees' job satisfaction and lessen their emotional exhaustion by making efforts to raise their perceptions of organizational support. Management could promote a sense of organizational support by showing appreciation and care during daily organizational activities. There are many ways to achieve this goal. First, organizations should care about employees' well-being and recognize and reward their contribution and desired behaviours. For example, when employees use deep acting to express desired emotions,

they need to be not only recognized, but also rewarded. Second, employees' perceptions of organizational support can be facilitated by allowing participation in decision-making, providing growth opportunities, and making sure a fair distribution of reward (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003). For example, Laschinger et al. (2006) suggested that employees participating in the organizational decision making "can enhance perceptions of support by acknowledging their valuable contributions" (p.27). Hence, an organization should use management practices to build high levels of perceived organizational support in employees because supportive organizations can increase employees' job satisfaction and diminish their emotional exhaustion.

Strengths and Limitations

The current research possesses a number of strengths. The participants in this study were from a wide range of occupations in Taiwan. This contributed to the literature by examining emotional labour in a context that goes beyond the Western countries. This study also achieved theoretical extension by testing a model that integrated the role of emotional labour strategies with the JD-R model. Further, the longitudinal data collection strategy, with independent and dependent variables collected at different times, and the use of structural equation modelling as an analytical technique in the testing of the model, should also be viewed as strengths.

Despite these strengths and the many significant findings, this study also had some limitations. The most apparent limitation of this study was the use of a convenient sample. Thus, caution must be taken when generalizing the findings. In addition, the current research relied on self-report measures for all the constructs in the model (a

single-source strategy for data collection) due to being unable to collect data from different sources. This raises the concerns of common method bias. As outlined in chapter 4, Harman's Single Factor test was used to address this problem and common method variance does not appear to be a serious problem in the current investigation. An additional limitation of the current study emerged from the use of the time lag to separate the measurement of the predictor and criterion variables because the separation of the measurement of these variables potentially allows contaminating factors to intervene between these variables. Potentially contaminating factors may "mask a relationship that really exists" (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p.888).

As mentioned previously, using a variety of organizations to decrease the possible impact of contextual constraints inherent in a particular organization can be viewed as a strength. However, research has found that organizational cultures could vary in expectations for emotional expression (Fineman, 2004). Therefore, the results should be interpreted with caution due to the possibility of direct organizational effects on any of the independent or dependent variables.

A final limitation was that the current research failed to cross-validate the proposed model by testing it in more than one sample. The most basic form of cross-validation analysis is to assess whether a single model is likely to fit well when estimated on a different sample from the same general population (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). One approach is to randomly split the total sample. A suggested lower threshold is 300 cases, split into a calibration sample (used to develop the model) and validation sample (used to test the derived model) (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2000). However, the current research failed to obtain a large enough sample to implement a split-sample

approach. Hence, the results should be interpreted with caution until this study is replicated in another context.

Directions for Future Research

The present study hypothesized an emotional labour model grounded in theory and previous empirical research. However, in the discussion of the results some interesting variables that future research should include in this model were identified. First, future research could further examine the role of commitment in the emotional labour process. Researchers have argued that there is a motivational component influencing whether employees engage in emotional labour to display organizationally required emotions (Diefendorff & Gosserand, 2003; Gosserand & Diefendorff, 2005). Gosserand and Diefendorff (2005) found that commitment to display rules moderated the relationships between display rule perceptions and surface acting and deep acting. Thus, employees with organizational commitment or commitment to display rules may be more prone to extend effort toward displaying organizationally desired emotions. In addition, the violation of the psychological contract may also reduce organization commitment as a result of breaking the relationship between employers and employees, leading to reduced employee effort and commitment (Barrett, 2004). Further research should investigate the effect of violating the psychological contract on emotional labour performance.

Another interesting variable that future research should investigate is the role of emotional dissonance. As noted, emotional dissonance occurs when there is a conflict between felt emotions and emotions required to be displayed in organizations (Lewig & Dollard, 2003; Morris & Feldman, 1996). The current study argued that people would

need to experience emotional dissonance for them to be motivated to use emotional labour strategies and that surface acting is conceptually similar to emotional dissonance, which are in line with previous research (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Cropanzano et al., 2004; Grandey, 2000; Kruml & Geddes, 2000b; Rubin et al., 2005). However, other researchers have also argued that emotional dissonance is a consequence of performing emotional labour leading to negative outcomes (Härtel, Hsu, & Boyle, 2002; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). In addition, other research has indicated that emotional dissonance mediates the relationship between emotional job demands and burnout (Bakker & Heuven, 2006). Therefore, further exploration needs to continue in order to clarify the role of emotional dissonance in the emotional labour process.

Third, the findings of the current research showed the need for examining other job demand variables. The current research conceptualized emotional job demands in terms of client-related stressors (such as interactions with customers). However, previous research has reported that job-related stressors are more strongly associated with emotional exhaustion than client-related stressors (Bakker & Heuven, 2006; Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Future research should examine other job demand variables (e.g., work overload, time pressure, and role conflicts) in attempting to determine the effects of job demands on the choice of emotional labour strategies and emotional exhaustion.

A fourth direction for researchers is to further investigate the moderating role of resources (e.g., affectivity, POS, and job autonomy) on the relationship between emotional labour and employee well-being or between job demands and employee well-being in order to more fully understand these relationships. For example, Grandey et al. (2005b) found that job autonomy moderated the impact of surface acting on emotional

exhaustion. Similarly, Bakker, Demerouti, and Euwema (2005) found that autonomy, social support, and a high-quality relationship with a supervisor can buffer the impact of job demands on levels of burnout. Although there has been ongoing debate regarding the main or buffer effects of job resources on strain, it is important that future research investigates both effects (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Therefore, resource variables can be further examined as moderators rather than solely the antecedents of emotional labour.

Fifth, the results of the current research reveal the need for examining other personal characteristics, such as need for autonomy, growth need strength, introverts, and self-monitoring. For example, in order to understand the relationship between job autonomy and employees' well-being, further research could examine employees' need for autonomy or growth need strength. In addition, future researchers may like to investigate how people with high PA and introversion engage in emotional labour in terms of surface acting or deep acting. As discussed previously, employees who do not use either surface or deep acting may display their own emotions inconsistent with required emotions. Beal et al. (2006) suggested that those who are low on self-monitoring do not feel it necessary to control their emotional states. Therefore, future research should investigate how self-monitoring may influence employees' willingness to engage in performing emotional labour.

Another interesting direction for future research is the further exploration of the consequences of emotional labour. For example, the examination of the impact of emotional labour on organizational outcomes, such as job performance, customer satisfaction, and employee turnover behaviour would make an important further contribution to the literature. Previous researchers have suggested that job performance

and turnover would be important long-term consequences associated with emotional labour (Grandey, 2000; Rubin et al., 2005) and that emotional exhaustion is related to lower performance and higher turnover (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). In addition, the current research could be extended beyond single source data by examining organizational outcomes such as supervisor assessments of performance or customer satisfaction. It may well be that the cost of improving an employee's psychological well-being would be more than offset by improvements in customer satisfaction in terms of increased customer retention and good will.

Seventh, although the emotional culture of the service industry in Taiwan is generally similar to that in the U.S. service economy, there is the possibility that cultural differences might account for differences in how and to what extent emotional labour is performed by employees. Additional cross-cultural studies are needed to shed more light on the influence of culture on the mechanisms inherent in emotional labour (Rupp et al., 2008; Van Dijk & Brown, 2006). In addition, future research could apply random sampling to obtain a representative sample in order to enhance external validity.

A last potential area for future research is to use an experience sampling methodology to focus on within-person covariation in emotional labour strategies. Experience sampling refers to set of techniques asking participants to report their behaviours, thoughts, or feelings as they occur in real-time (Beal & Weiss, 2003). As the strategies that employees use to regulate their emotions may change on a day-to-day or momentary basis, using experience sampling methodology, in which participants provide ratings at work in real time, may be extremely useful in understanding how the use of emotion regulation strategies may change across situations.

Conclusion

The objective of this study was to develop and test an emotional labour model by examining the relationship between emotional labour and job demand and resource variables in the prediction of employee well-being. The current research demonstrated that the Job Demands-Resources model is a useful framework for examining the antecedents and outcomes related to emotional labour. Moreover, the findings contributed to the literature by combining the results of many piecemeal studies into a large model tested within an SEM framework.

The results showed that frequency of interactions with difficult customers, PA, and NA are all important predictors of at least one of the emotional labour strategies. People who feel supported by their organization are likely to be satisfied with their job and have low levels of emotional exhaustion. In addition, individuals who are high on NA are more likely to feel emotional exhaustion. The results of this study revealed that the outcomes of emotional labour can be either positive or negative, depending on how it is performed. Employees who surface act tend to have lower job satisfaction and higher emotional exhaustion, whereas employees who deep act tend to have higher job satisfaction. The current research also found that the relationships between NA and emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction as well as between the frequency of interactions with difficult customers and emotional exhaustion were mediated by surface acting.

Therefore, organizations aiming to improve employees' job satisfaction and diminish their emotional exhaustion should focus on hiring the right kinds of people, training them in effective emotional regulation techniques, and creating a climate in

which employees feel supported by their organization. Overall, the present study provides a better understanding of emotional labour and its antecedents and consequences.

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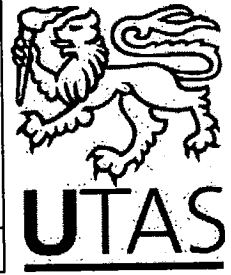
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APPENDIX A

Ethical Approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee (Tasmania) Network



MEMORANDUM

<http://www.research.utas.edu.au/index.htm>

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (TASMANIA) NETWORK

MINIMAL RISK APPLICATION APPROVAL

24 October 2006

Dr Rob Hecker
Management
Private Bag 16
Hobart

Ethics reference: H9162

The effects of emotional labour on employees' well-being.

Student: Huei-Yin Chou (PhD)

Dear Dr Hecker

Acting on a mandate from the Tasmania Social Sciences HREC, the Chair of the committee considered and approved the above project on 23 October 2006.

All committees operating under the Human Research Ethics Committee (Tasmania) Network are registered and required to comply with the *National Statement on the Ethical Conduct in Research Involving Humans 1999* (NHMRC guidelines).

Therefore, the Chief Investigator's responsibility is to ensure that:

- 1) All researchers listed on the application comply with HREC approved application.
- 2) Modifications to the application do not proceed until approval is obtained in writing from the HREC.
- 3) The confidentiality and anonymity of all research subjects is maintained at all times, except as required by law.
- 4) Clause 2.37 of the National Statement states:
An HREC shall, as a condition of approval of each protocol, require that researchers immediately report anything which might warrant review of ethical approval of the protocol, including:
 - a) *Serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants;*
 - b) *Proposed changes in the application; and*
 - c) *Unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project.*

The report must be lodged within 24 hours of the event to the Ethics Executive Officer who will report to the Chairs.

- 5) All participants must be provided with the current Information Sheet and Consent form as approved by the Ethics Committee.

A PARTNERSHIP PROGRAM IN CONJUNCTION WITH THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

- 6) The Committee is notified if any investigators are added to, or cease involvement with, the project.
- 7) This study has approval for four years contingent upon annual review. An *Annual Report* is to be provided on the anniversary date of your approval. Your first report is due [12 months from 'Ethics Committee Approval' date]. You will be sent a courtesy reminder by email closer to this due date.
Clause 2.35 of the National Statement states:
As a minimum an HREC must require at regular periods, at least annually, reports from principal researchers on matters including:
 - a) *Progress to date or outcome in case of completed research;*
 - b) *Maintenance and security of records;*
 - c) *Compliance with the approved protocol, and*
 - d) *Compliance with any conditions of approval.*
- 8) A *Final Report* and a copy of the published material, either in full or abstract, must be provided at the end of project.

Yours sincerely



for

Ethics Executive Officer

APPENDIX B

A Questionnaire with an Information Sheet – Time 1

Information Sheet for Employees

Dear Participant,

We would like to invite your participation in the following research project titled **“The effects of job demands and resources on emotional labour and employees’ psychological well-being”**.

This research is being undertaken to fulfil the requirements of a Doctor of Philosophy in management under the auspices of the School of Management at the University of Tasmania. The research will be conducted by Mrs Huei-Yin Chou, a PhD candidate of the School of Management, and overseen by Dr Rob Hecker, a senior lecturer in the School.

The purpose of this research is to explore the relationships among personality, work environment, emotional regulation strategies and job attitudes. Questions in this survey will ask about your attitudes and opinions concerning your work and organization. We are interested in how you perceive your work environment, how much you feel you control the job, how you feel supported by your organization, and how you regulate your emotions.

Your participation in the study would be extremely valuable. Participation in the study involves completing two questionnaires at two points in time, 6 months apart. Please find the attached questionnaire for the first data collection and return it in the stamp-addressed envelope provided within 14 days. The questionnaire will only take about 10-15 minutes to complete. Please note that it does not request your name. It is completed anonymously and so the data derived from it will be reported in a way that ensures anonymity.

Participation in the study is entirely voluntary and evidenced by returning the completed questionnaire. You can decline to answer any question, or can decline to participate at all.

The completed questionnaires will be viewed only by myself and my supervisors, and will be stored in a secure room in the University of Tasmania Commerce building for five years. At the end of that five-year period all documents will be destroyed.

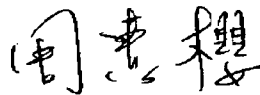
This research has received ethical approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee (Tasmania) Network. If you have any concerns of ethical issues regarding this research, please contact the Executive Officer of the Network on (03) 6226 2763.

If you have any other questions about this research, please direct them to Dr Rob Hecker at the contact details provided below.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet. We hope you will be willing to participate in this study.



.....
Dr Rob Hecker
School of Management
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.....
Mrs Huei-Yin Chou (周惠櫻)
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Ph: (03) 6226 7673
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Questionnaire

Section I

This section of the survey is concerned with the experience of different emotions in your life. Please indicate how often you have experienced each of following emotional states by circling the number on the scale where 1 is never and 5 is always.

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. Interested.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. Ashamed.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. Nervous.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. Enthusiastic.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. Jittery.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. Attentive.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. Upset.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. Guilty.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. Active.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. Proud.....	1	2	3	4	5
11. Afraid.....	1	2	3	4	5
12. Inspired.....	1	2	3	4	5
13. Determined.....	1	2	3	4	5
14. Scared.....	1	2	3	4	5
15. Excited.....	1	2	3	4	5
16. Irritable.....	1	2	3	4	5
17. Alert.....	1	2	3	4	5
18. Distressed.....	1	2	3	4	5
19. Strong.....	1	2	3	4	5
20. Hostile.....	1	2	3	4	5

Section II

The questions in this section describe the working situations in your job. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by circling the number on the scale where 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My encounters with customers usually last a while.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I do not interact with many difficult customers in my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I interact with many different customers on a daily basis.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. I do not encounter a large number of interactions with customers during my typical work day.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Most of my interactions with customers are short.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I spend a lot of time with each customer I interact with.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I interact with many complaining customers in my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I deal with customers on a frequent basis at work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I deal with many difficult customers at work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section III

The questions in this section describe the way you interact with customers. Please indicate how often you engage in each of the following activities by circling the number on the scale where 1 is never and 5 is always.

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
1. I put on an act in order to deal with customers in an appropriate way.....	1	2	3	4	5
2. I try to actually experience the emotions that I must show to customers.....	1	2	3	4	5
3. I fake a good mood when interacting with customers.....	1	2	3	4	5
4. I put on a "show" or "performance" when interacting with customers.....	1	2	3	4	5
5. I make an effort to actually feel the emotions that I need to display toward others.....	1	2	3	4	5
6. I just pretend to have the emotions I need to display for my job.....	1	2	3	4	5
7. I work hard to feel the emotions that I need to show to customers.....	1	2	3	4	5
8. I put on a "mask" in order to display the emotions I need for the job.....	1	2	3	4	5
9. I work at developing the feelings inside of me that I need to show to customers.....	1	2	3	4	5
10. I show feelings to customers that are different from what I feel inside.....	1	2	3	4	5
11. I fake the emotions I show when dealing with customers.....	1	2	3	4	5

Section IV

This section is concerned with the perception of support you receive from your organization and the autonomy of control you have over your work. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by circling the number on the scale where 1 is strongly disagree and 6 is strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. My organization really cares about my well-being.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. This job denies me much chance to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. My organization strongly considers my goals and values.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. This job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. My organization shows very little concern for me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. My organization cares about my opinions.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favour.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I have a considerable autonomy to decide on my own how to do my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section V

The following questions seek general demographic information about yourself. All information will be held strictly confidential.

1. What is your age?

☐ Under 25 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-39 ☐ 40-44 ☐ 45 or over

2. Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male

3. In what type of industry are you currently employed? (e.g., retail, hospitality, finance, healthcare etc.)

4. Your current position: _____

5. How long have you been employed in your current position?

☐ Less than 1 year

☐ 1 up to less than 4 years

☐ 4 up to less than 7 years

☐ 7 up to less than 10 years

☐ 10 years or greater

TRACKING CODE

This code identifier allows us to follow you up in 6 months. The code is just a unique device which does not contain any personal identifying information. It is important that you report the same tracking code on both questionnaires so please keep a record of your tracking code. Please fill out the following information.

1. The day of the month you were born (e.g., 17th): ()
2. The first letter of your ID number: ()
3. What is favourite colour? ()

Before you return the survey would you please check that you have answered all questions?

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

APPENDIX C

A Questionnaire with an Information Sheet – Time 2

Information Sheet for Employees

Dear Participant,

We would like again to invite your participation in the following research project titled **“The effects of job demands and resources on emotional labour and employees’ psychological well-being”**.

The purpose of this research is to explore the relationships among personality, work environment, emotional regulation strategies and job attitudes. Questions in this survey will ask about your attitudes and opinions concerning your well-being.

Your participation in the study would be extremely valuable. Participation in the study involves completing two questionnaires at two points in time, 6 months apart. Thanks for completing the previous questionnaire. Continued participation in the study involves completing the attached second questionnaire and returning it in the stamp-addressed envelope provided within 14 days. This is the final stage of data collection. The questionnaire will only take about 5 minutes to complete. Please note that it does not request your name. It is completed anonymously and so the data derived from it will be reported in a way that ensures anonymity.

Participation in the study is entirely voluntary and evidenced by returning the completed questionnaire. You can decline to answer any question, or can decline to participate at all.

The completed questionnaires will be viewed only by myself and my supervisors, and will be stored in a secure room in the University of Tasmania Commerce building for five years. At the end of that five-year period all documents will be destroyed.

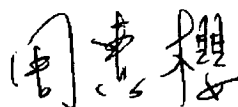
This research has received ethical approval from the Human Research Ethics Committee (Tasmania) Network. If you have any concerns of ethical issues regarding this research, please contact the Executive Officer of the Network on (03) 6226 2763.

If you have any other questions about this research, please direct them to Dr Rob Hecker at the contact details provided below.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet. We hope you will be willing to participate in this study.



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.....
Mrs Huei-Yin Chou (周惠櫻)
School of Management
University of Tasmania
Ph: (03) 6226 7673
Email: cychou@utas.edu.au

Questionnaire

Section I

The section of this survey is interested in your stress and job satisfaction level at work. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by circling the number on the scale where 1 is strongly disagree and 7 is strongly agree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Disagree nor Agree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. All in all I am satisfied with my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. I feel frustrated by my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I feel burned out from my work.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I feel used up at the end of the workday.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. In general, I like working here.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. In general, I don't like my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section II

The following questions seek general demographic information about yourself. All information will be held strictly confidential.

1. What is your age?

☐ Under 25 ☐ 25-29 ☐ 30-34 ☐ 35-39 ☐ 40-44 ☐ 45 or over

2. Gender: ☐ Female ☐ Male

3. In what type of industry are you currently employed? (e.g., retail, hospitality, finance, healthcare etc.)

4. Your current position: _____

5. How long have you been employed in your current position?

☐ Less than 1 year

☐ 1 up to less than 4 years

☐ 4 up to less than 7 years

☐ 7 up to less than 10 years

☐ 10 years or greater

TRACKING CODE

This code identifier allows us to match up your time 1 questionnaire. The code is just a unique device which does not contain any personal identifying information. It is important that you report the same tracking code as the earlier questionnaire. Please fill out the following information.

1. The day of the month you were born (e.g., 17th): ()
2. The first letter of your ID number: ()
3. What is favourite colour? ()

Before you return the survey would you please check that you have answered all questions?

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX D

Results of Discriminant Validity Tests

	<u>Constrained Model</u>		<u>Unconstrained Model</u>				Sig.
	χ^2	d.f.	χ^2	d.f.	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p <
PA-NA	148.77	9	8.41	8	140.36	1	.001
PA-DUR	74.29	5	1.2	4	73.09	1	.001
PA-FREQ	65.97	5	4.49	4	61.48	1	.001
PA-FREQDC	153.61	9	13.14	8	140.47	1	.001
PA-POS	149.04	9	14.24	8	134.80	1	.001
PA-JA	82.39	5	6.7	4	75.69	1	.001
PA-SA	163.66	14	24.78	13	138.88	1	.001
PA-DA	118.98	9	3.88	8	115.1	1	.001
PA-EE	146.29	9	15.65	8	130.64	1	.001
PA-JS	132.58	9	14.59	8	117.99	1	.001
NA-DUR	144.13	5	2.69	4	141.44	1	.001
NA-FREQ	144.67	5	3.41	4	141.26	1	.001
NA-FREQDC	141.09	9	6.35	8	134.74	1	.001
NA-POS	132.43	9	7.78	8	124.65	1	.001
NA-JA	138.2	5	1.72	4	136.48	1	.001
NA-SA	146.94	14	15.95	13	130.99	1	.001
NA-DA	146.87	9	7.24	8	139.63	1	.001
NA-EE	117.24	9	3.8	8	113.44	1	.001
NA-JS	141.89	9	13.18	8	128.71	1	.001
DUR-FREQ	44.44	2	6.15	1	38.29	1	.001
DUR-FREQDC	77.03	5	1.46	4	75.57	1	.001
DUR-POS	81.69	5	2.96	4	78.73	1	.001
DUR-JA	91.24	2	1.7	1	89.54	1	.001
DUR-SA	107.81	9	19.98	8	87.83	1	.001
DUR-DA	73.79	5	1.43	4	72.36	1	.001
DUR-EE	83.74	5	3.37	4	80.37	1	.001
DUR-JS	84.75	5	6.27	4	78.48	1	.001
FREQ-FREQDC	52.67	5	1.77	4	50.90	1	.001
FREQ-POS	69.34	5	2.75	4	66.59	1	.001
FREQ-JA	67.27	2	0.03	1	67.24	1	.001
FREQ-SA	83.59	9	15.71	8	67.88	1	.001
FREQ-DA	61.6	5	4.4	4	57.20	1	.001
FREQ-EE	72.86	5	4.42	4	68.44	1	.001
FREQ-JS	71.53	5	3.89	4	67.64	1	.001
FREQDC-POS	296.18	9	11.25	8	284.93	1	.001

	<u>Constrained Model</u>		<u>Unconstrained Model</u>				Sig.
	χ^2	d.f.	χ^2	d.f.	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p <
FREQDC-JA	92.52	5	5.67	4	86.85	1	.001
FREQDC-SA	204.66	14	31.72	13	172.94	1	.001
FREQDC-DA	188.62	9	14.91	8	173.71	1	.001
FREQDC-EE	187.63	9	27.36	8	160.27	1	.001
FREQDC-JS	194.67	9	15.49	8	179.18	1	.001
POS-JA	37.22	5	3.22	4	34.00	1	.001
POS-SA	285.24	14	22.43	13	262.81	1	.001
POS-DA	175.46	9	19.93	8	155.53	1	.001
POS-EE	198.99	9	10.63	8	188.36	1	.001
POS-JS	138.24	9	12.96	8	125.28	1	.001
JA-SA	101.32	9	11.97	8	89.35	1	.001
JA-DA	83.06	5	6.04	4	77.02	1	.001
JA-EE	66.53	5	6.12	4	60.41	1	.001
JA-JS	60.68	5	11.18	4	49.50	1	.001
SA-DA	206.03	14	19.83	13	186.20	1	.001
SA-EE	283.55	14	11.67	13	271.88	1	.001
SA-JS	323.07	14	27.28	13	295.79	1	.001
DA-EE	183.49	9	16.92	8	166.57	1	.001
DA-JS	162.43	9	14.16	8	148.27	1	.001
EE-JS	57.63	9	25.45	8	32.18	1	.001

Note. PA= Positive affectivity; NA= Negative Affectivity; DUR= Duration of Interactions; FREQ= Frequency of Interactions; FREQDC= Frequency of Interactions with Difficult Customers; POS= Perceived Organizational Support; JA= Job Autonomy; SA= Surface Acting; DA= Deep Acting; EE= Emotional Exhaustion; JS= Job Satisfaction.